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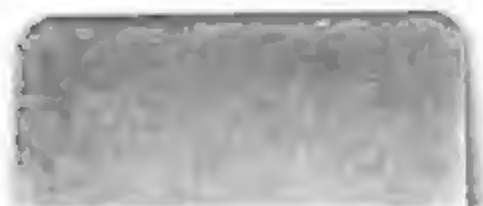
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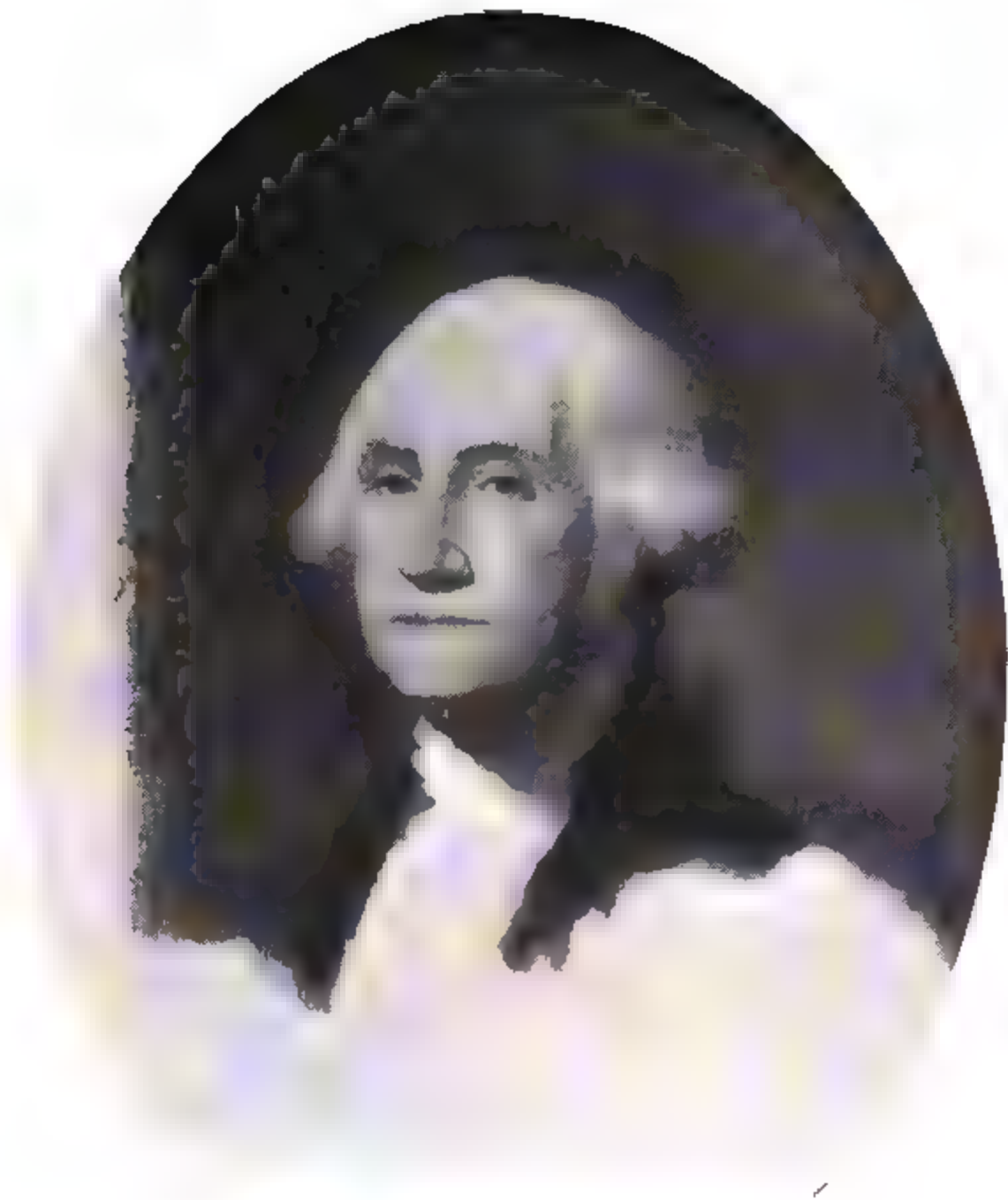


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A HISTORY
OF THE
UNITED STATES



GEORGE WASHINGTON

From the painting by Gilbert Stuart, owned by the Boston Athenæum

A HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES

FOR SCHOOLS

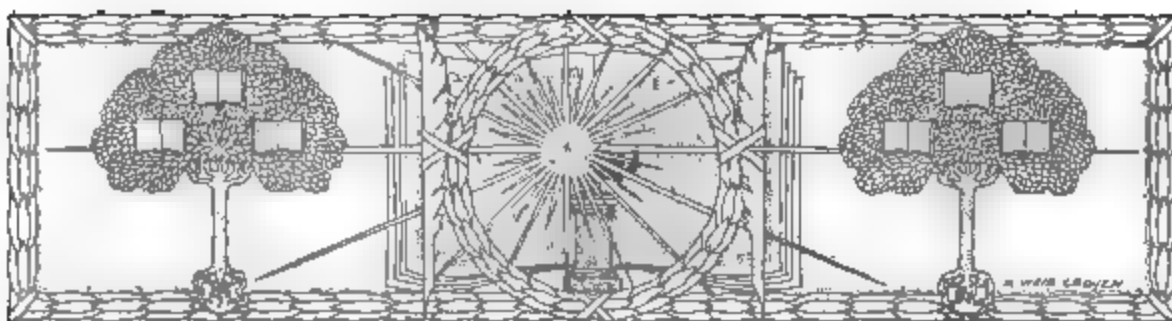
By S. E. FORMAN
AUTHOR OF "ADVANCED CIVICS," ETC.



THE CENTURY CO.
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PREFACE

IN this text I have traced the history of our country's growth from its small and rude beginnings to its present grand proportions. In the treatment I have kept before my mind an ever-growing nation, and I have tried to tell the story in such a way that the pupil may follow as with the eye each successive advance in that wave of civilization which has always been moving toward the West. With the opening of the national period the motion of this wave became swift and strong. Between the close of the Revolution and the middle of the nineteenth century American civilization forced its way from the Alleghany Mountains to the Pacific coast. Almost within the bounds of a single long life a region half as large as Europe was cleared of savages and wild beasts and made the home of a peaceful and highly civilized race.

The vast importance of this Westward Movement has led me to give it special prominence. In order to give a correct picture of our country's growth I have found it necessary to follow the upbuilding of the West and Southwest step by step, State by State; and I have thought it wise to be liberal in the treatment of this Western development, for no more imposing movement has been witnessed by man, and there is no more inspiring subject of classroom work.

For the assistance of the teacher in review work I have placed

at the ends of the chapters review exercises in which the educational principles of repetition and iteration have been fully and systematically brought into use. The topics suggested for special reading are, in most instances, designed for enriching and illuminating the text, although many of them deal with subjects not treated in the text, and are purely supplementary in character. In selecting books of reference I have been partial to books of spirit and action. At the end of the book (pp. xxxix–lii) are outlines for the intensive reviews of great subjects. If the pupil is practised in these analytical reviews as he goes along, by the time he has finished the book he will have acquired a considerable amount of related knowledge on all the important subjects of American history. A distinguished teacher of history in one of our universities used to tell the student who was reciting to “take up the subject and run with it.” These reviews will practise the pupils in taking up subjects and running with them; they will give that feeling of power which comes with fullness of knowledge. Topics for outline recitations have also been prepared for all the chapters.

The manuscript was read most carefully by Dr. Max Farrand, Professor of History in Yale University, and I am deeply indebted to Dr. Farrand for many extremely valuable criticisms and suggestions.

The manuscript also had the advantage of critical reading by Frank J. Klingberg of the Department of History in Yale University; by Mr. J. R. Todd of the Department of History in the College of the City of New York; by Mr. George L. Robins of the Hill School, Pottstown, Pennsylvania; by Dr. Armand J. Gerson, Supervising Principal, Robert Morris Public School, Philadelphia; and by Dr. Benjamin E. Smith, editor-in-chief of the Century Dictionary. Mr. William W. Ellsworth of The Century Co. has furnished useful summaries for the War of

PREFACE

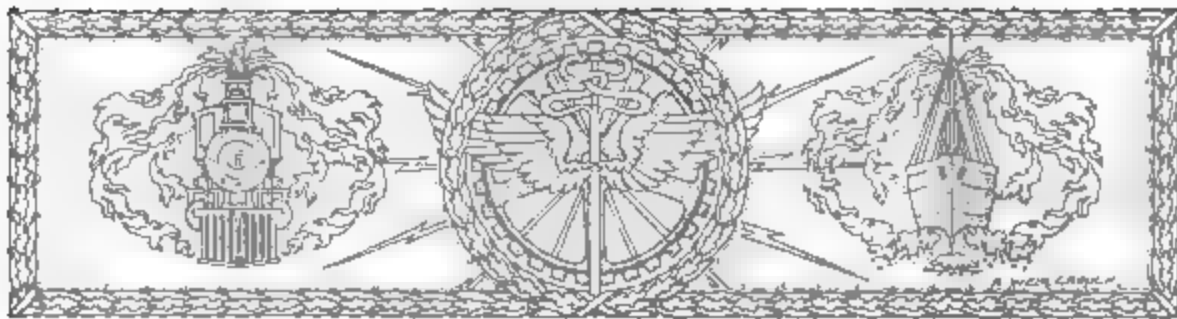
ix

the Revolution and for the Civil War, and he has been untiring in his efforts to secure for the book proper maps and illustrations.

While preparing the book I was greatly assisted by courtesies extended by the officers of the Library of Congress and also by those of the Library of Columbia University.

S. E. FORMAN.

Washington, D. C.





CONTENTS

CHAPTER	PAGE
I. COLUMBUS DISCOVERS A NEW WORLD	1
II. SPANISH VOYAGES AND EXPLORATIONS	9
III. ENGLAND BECOMES THE MISTRESS OF THE SEAS . . .	15
IV. OUR COUNTRY THREE HUNDRED YEARS AGO	23
V. AROUND THE CHESAPEAKE BAY: VIRGINIA, MARY- LAND	30
VI. AROUND NEW YORK BAY: NEW YORK, NEW JERSEY .	38
VII. AROUND MASSACHUSETTS BAY AND ALONG THE PISCAT- AQUA RIVER: MASSACHUSETTS, NEW HAMPSHIRE	46
VIII. ALONG THE CONNECTICUT RIVER AND AROUND THE NARRAGANSETT BAY: CONNECTICUT, RHODE ISLAND	55
IX. ALONG THE DELAWARE BAY AND THE DELAWARE RIVER: PENNSYLVANIA, DELAWARE	62
X. ALONG THE CAROLINA COAST: NORTH CAROLINA, SOUTH CAROLINA	69
XI. REBELLIONS AND INDIAN UPRISINGS	75
XII. OUR COUNTRY IN THE YEAR 1700	80
XIII. COLONIAL GROWTH BETWEEN 1700 AND 1740 . . .	87
XIV. ALONG THE ST. LAWRENCE AND THE MISSISSIPPI: CANADA; LOUISIANA	94
XV. THE STRUGGLE FOR A CONTINENT: THE FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR	105
XVI. THE MOTHER COUNTRY AND THE COLONIES QUARREL .	114
XVII. INDEPENDENCE DECLARED	122
XVIII. THE STRUGGLE FOR INDEPENDENCE	131
XIX. VICTORY AND INDEPENDENCE	140

CHAPTER	PAGE
XX. FORMING A MORE PERFECT UNION	150 ✓
XXI. LAUNCHING THE "SHIP OF STATE" (1789-1801) . . .	159 ✓
XXII. ALONG THE KENTUCKY, THE TENNESSEE, AND THE OHIO: KENTUCKY; TENNESSEE; THE NORTHWEST TERRITORY	168 ✓
XXIII. OUR COUNTRY IN THE YEAR 1800	178
XXIV. THE ADMINISTRATION OF THOMAS JEFFERSON (1801-09): THE GREAT EXPANSION	186 ✓
XXV. THE ADMINISTRATION OF JAMES MADISON (1809- 17): THE WAR FOR COMMERCIAL INDEPENDENCE .	196
XXVI. ALONG THE OHIO RIVER: OHIO, INDIANA, ILLINOIS .	206
XXVII. AROUND THE GULF OF MEXICO: LOUISIANA, MISSIS- SIPPI, ALABAMA. MISSOURI	214
XXVIII. MONROE AND JOHN QUINCY ADAMS	221
XXIX. JACKSON AND VAN BUREN	230
XXX. DEVELOPMENT BETWEEN 1820 AND 1840	239
XXXI. HARRISON AND TYLER; POLK; THE GREAT WESTWARD EXTENSION	250 ✓
XXXII. DEVELOPMENT BETWEEN 1840 AND 1850	262 ✓
XXXIII. THE ADMINISTRATION OF ZACHARY TAYLOR AND MILLARD FILLMORE (1849-53)	276
XXXIV. FRANKLIN PIERCE; JAMES BUCHANAN	287
XXXV. PROGRESS IN CIVILIZATION BETWEEN 1800 AND 1860 .	298
XXXVI. PROGRESS IN CIVILIZATION BETWEEN 1800 AND 1860 (CONTINUED)	304
XXXVII. THE BEGINNINGS OF A GREAT CONFLICT	315
XXXVIII. THE CIVIL WAR: THE FIRST CLASHES	325
XXXIX. THE CIVIL WAR: FROM FORT DONELSON TO CHANCELLORSVILLE	333
XL. THE CIVIL WAR: THE CLOSE OF THE STRUGGLE . . .	349
XLI. BINDING UP THE NATION'S WOUNDS	363
XLII. THE NEW WEST	375 ✓
XLIII. A UNITED PEOPLE	388
XLIV. A UNITED PEOPLE (CONTINUED)	397
XLV. A LEADER AMONG THE NATIONS	410

CONTENTS

xiii

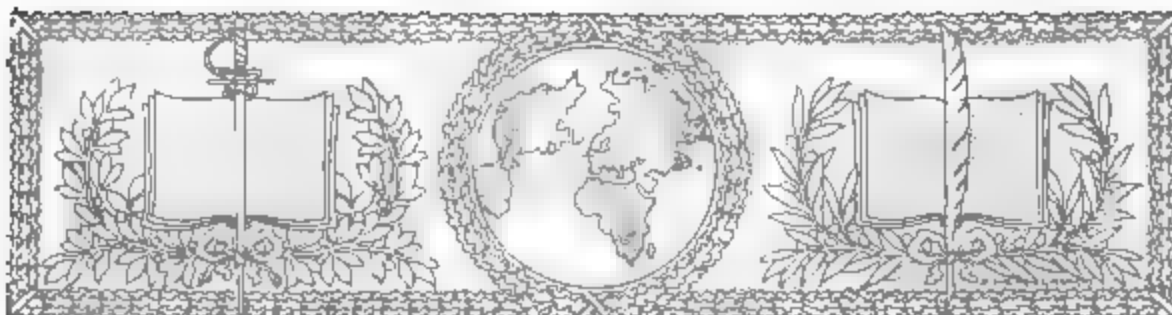
APPENDICES

	PAGE
I. THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE	i
II. CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES	v
III. GENERAL REVIEW	xx
IV. TOPICS FOR OUTLINE RECITATIONS	xxi
V. READING LIST	xxxvii
VI. REVIEW OF GREAT SUBJECTS	xxxix
INDEX	liv

LIST OF COLORED MAPS

OUR COUNTRY THREE HUNDRED YEARS AGO	<i>Front cover lining</i>
BEFORE THE FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR	<i>Facing p. 113</i>
AFTER THE FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR	" 113
THE UNITED STATES AFTER THE TREATY OF 1783	" 152
OUR COUNTRY IN 1800	" 178
THE UNITED STATES IN 1821	" 218
THE UNITED STATES IN 1840	" 273
THE UNITED STATES IN 1850	" 273
THE UNITED STATES IN 1861	" 320
THE GROWTH OF THE UNITED STATES FROM 1776 TO 1867	" 368
THE NEW WEST	" 384
OUR COUNTRY TO-DAY	<i>Back cover lining</i>

*Illustrations and maps in the text may be found usually by referring
to the subject in the Index at the end of the book.*



**A HISTORY
OF THE
UNITED STATES**

A HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES

I

COLUMBUS DISCOVERS A NEW WORLD

"My men grow mutinous day by day,
My men grow ghastly wan and weak."
The stout mate thought of home; a spray
Of salt wave washed his swarthy cheek.
"What shall I say, brave Admiral, say,
If we sight naught but seas at dawn?"
"Why, you shall say at break of day,
'Sail on! sail on! sail on, and on!'"

Joaquin Miller.



The boyhood home
of Columbus in
Genoa.

1. The Youth of Christopher Columbus.—The story of America may properly open with an account of the deeds of Christopher Columbus. This remarkable man was born in the city of Genoa, Italy, about the year 1446. His father was a poor weaver whose earnings were hardly sufficient to support his family. Christopher, therefore, had to leave school at an early age and begin to earn his own living. At first he worked at his father's trade, but by the time he had reached his twenty-fifth year he was out on the sea leading the life of a sailor.

2. Trade between Europe and the Orient.—About the time young Christopher was growing into manhood, great changes were taking place in the world around him. His own city, Genoa, and the other cities of the Mediterranean as well, were losing their trade with the Orient, that is, with Persia, India, China, and the islands of the far East. Fierce Turks stood in the overland routes that led from the Mediterranean to the Orient, and would not allow merchants to pass. Turks also



Routes to the Orient.

blocked the water route that led from Alexandria, in Egypt, down the Red Sea, and across the Indian Ocean to India. So that by the time Columbus had learned to manage a boat and govern a crew, peaceful trade with the Orient along the eastern routes was no longer possible.

But Europe could not get along very well without the trade of the Orient. This trade was chiefly in spices, drugs, dyes, and gems, and those beautiful silks and rugs for which the Orient even to-day is famous. For such luxuries as these the Europeans depended almost entirely upon Asia; especially were they dependent upon Asia for their spices. The Europeans of the fifteenth century used large quantities of pepper, allspice, cinnamon, and cloves. Europe might endure the loss of the silks and rugs and precious stones of the Orient, but the spices of the far-off country it must have.

3. Notions about the Earth Four Hundred Years Ago.— Just as soon, therefore, as the old land routes to the Orient were closed, Europeans began an eager search for a new route by water, and foremost among those who joined in it was Columbus. Such a search was carried on in the dark, for wise men five

hundred years ago knew less about the earth than is known to-day by a child. As for the size of the earth, one can see how little they knew about that by looking at a map of the world as known to Europeans in the year 1400. Such a map shows only Europe, southern Asia, and a narrow strip of Africa; of North America, South America, and Australia there is not a sign. The shape of the earth was not even so well understood as was its size. A few thoughtful men like Columbus believed the earth to be a sphere; but in the minds

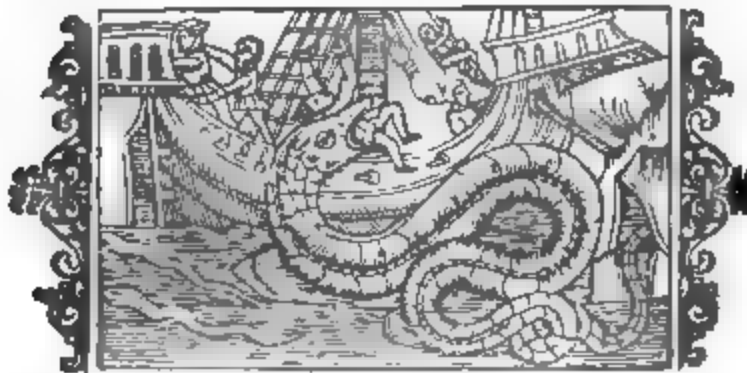


The world as known to Europeans in 1400.

of most people the earth was a great flat body of land around which flowed a mysterious ocean; in the distant parts of this ocean, it was thought, were horrid monsters that would swallow up ships and sailors that might dare to come near. So it was out upon a sea of darkness and terror that the sailors of Europe went when they began to search for a new route to India.

4. The Portuguese Lead in the Search for a Route to India.

—In the race for the Orient, Portugal soon left all the other countries behind. The plan of the Portuguese sailors was to



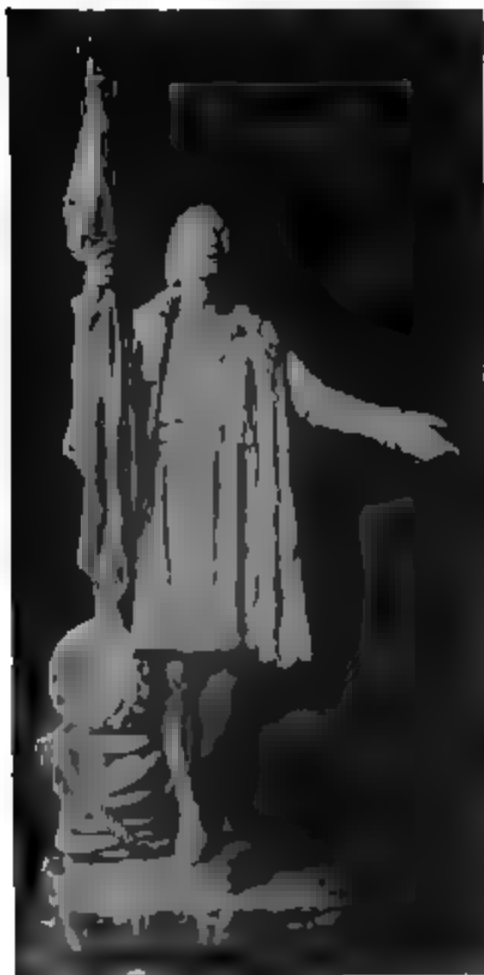
The Sea of Darkness.

sail south along the coast of Africa, and when the southern part of the peninsula was reached, to sail directly across the Indian Ocean to India and China. Following this plan, Bar-

tholomeu Dias, a Portuguese captain, in 1487 pushed as far south as the Cape of Good Hope and sailed seven hundred miles into the Indian Ocean before he turned back. He would have gone even farther had not his crew been afraid of the monsters which they imagined were lying in wait for them in the waters

beyond. Ten years later another Portuguese captain, Vasco da Gama, rounded the cape, and in spite of the imaginary monsters sailed on to India.

5. Columbus Plans for a Western Voyage to India.—While



Statue of Columbus at Madrid.

the Portuguese sailors were creeping down the African coast, extending their voyages farther and farther to the south, Columbus appeared in Lisbon with a plan for reaching India by a route which he thought would be much shorter than that by the Cape of Good Hope. It was his firm belief that the earth was round like a ball and that India could be reached by sailing directly west. He also thought that the coast of Asia was only about four thousand miles west of the coast of Europe. If these things were so, why, he asked, should not the voyage from Europe to India be made by sailing directly across the Atlantic? Why go all around the barn and enter at the back door, as the Portuguese were trying to do, when one could go straight across and enter at the front door? As early as 1475 it was so clear to his mind that the western route was the best that he was willing to undertake the voyage.

But such a voyage required ships and men, and these Columbus did not have. He applied to the King of Portugal for aid, but was sent away empty-handed. He applied to Spain, and was again turned away. But Columbus was a great man, and great men are not easily turned aside from their purposes. For many long years Columbus, now in Portugal, now in Spain, now in his own city of Genoa, visited the palaces of nobles and kings, seeking aid for the plan that was so dear to his soul. During

these years his feet were often sore with much walking and his heart was often sick with disappointment, but his faith in his plan and his iron will at last brought him success. In 1492 Isabella, the Queen of Spain, furnished him with means to undertake the voyage, pledging her jewels to raise the necessary money.

6. Columbus Sails Westward across the Atlantic.—

One hundred and twenty sailors and three vessels, the *Santa Maria*, the *Pinta*, and the *Niña*, were secured for the voyage. The largest of the ships, the *Santa Maria*, was about sixty feet in length, a mere toy boat compared with the ocean vessels



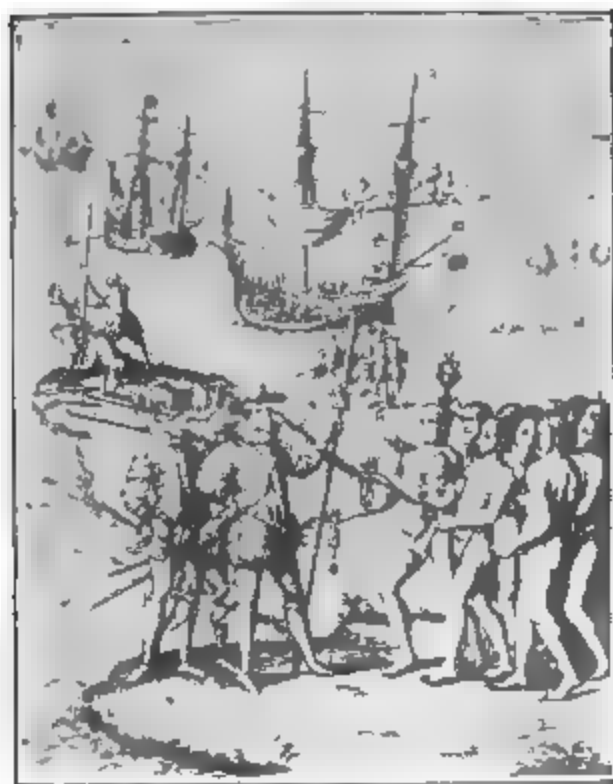
Columbus bidding farewell to Ferdinand and Isabella.

of to-day. The little fleet set sail from Palos, in Spain, on the 3d of August, 1492, Columbus himself commanding the *Santa Maria*. When the Canary Islands had been passed, Columbus steered directly west, and the farther west he sailed, the blacker became the darkness of the voyage and the greater became its terrors. When days and weeks had passed and no land had appeared, the sailors grew impatient and wished to turn back. But Columbus was not one to turn back. He cheered his men, coaxed them, promised them great rewards if they would keep on, and in one way and another managed to hold their faces to the west. At last, after a voyage of seventy days, the fears of the sailors suddenly passed away, and the hearts of all were filled with joy, for at about midnight between the 11th and 12th of October, 1492, Columbus, peering into the darkness, saw a light ahead; and the light was on land. At sunrise a landing was made on an island called by Columbus San Salvador.¹

¹Spanish for "Holy Saviour."

Columbus felt that his labors and sacrifices had not been in vain, for he was sure he had found a new route to India. Leaving San Salvador, he sailed along the shores of Cuba, Haiti, and other islands, and, as he passed from place to place, he was sure he was skirting the coast of India. So he named the strange-looking people on the shores *Indians*. After building a rude fort on the island of Haiti, he sailed for Spain.

On the way back a violent storm arose, and at a moment when it seemed that his boat would sink, Columbus sealed up in a cask an account of the voyage and threw the cask overboard, in the hope that it would float ashore and be found. But the storm



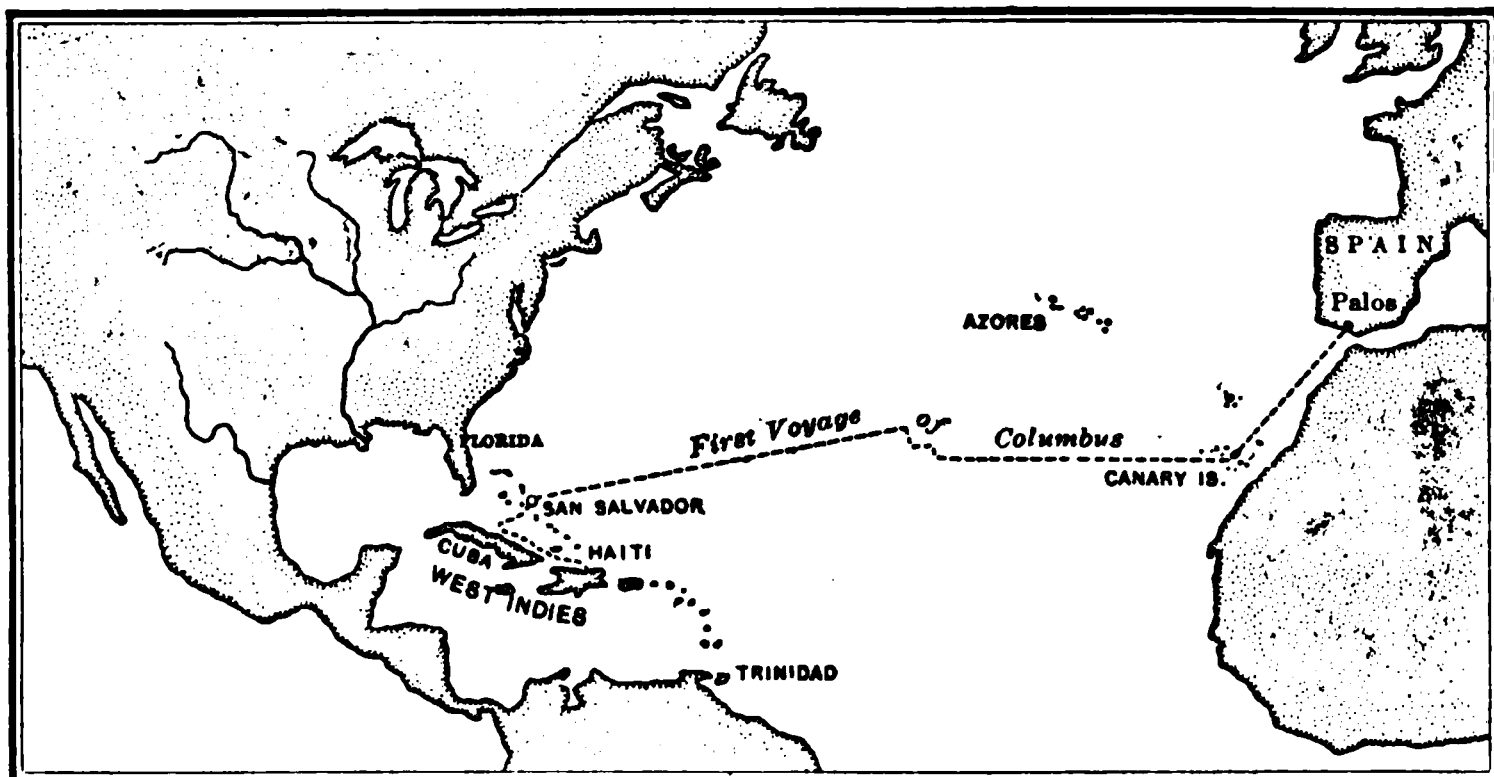
The landing of Columbus.

passed, and Columbus reached Palos without having lost a man. Thus a voyage that promised to be the most dangerous turned out to be one of the safest ever made.

7. Other Voyages of Columbus.—No honors were now too great for Columbus. According to an agreement made with the queen, he was given the title of Great Admiral, and as he passed through Spain from city to city, he was treated as if he were a king. There was now no trouble in securing sailors and

ships for the western route. The Great Admiral made three more voyages to the new-found land, and on the third voyage he first saw (in 1498) the mainland of the continent. It was the coast of South America, but he thought it was India.

While on his third voyage Columbus was accused by enemies of wrong-doing and was arrested and sent home in chains. Queen Isabella, always his best friend, ordered him released, but enemies still sprang up on every side and filled his old age with bitterness. He died at Valladolid, in Spain, in 1506, but



The first voyage of Columbus.

so obscure and neglected was he when he passed away that no note was taken of his death, and to this day it is not certain where the great man lies buried.

8. What Columbus Accomplished.—Columbus went down to his grave believing that he had found a short route to India, but in this he was, of course, mistaken. In the search for that route, Portugal had won when Vasco da Gama rounded the Cape of Good Hope and sailed on to India. But Columbus did something far greater than to discover a new route to India—something that he had not set out to do, something he never knew that he had done—what he had discovered was not a new water route, but a NEW WORLD.

QUESTIONS ON THE TEXT

1. Give an account of the early youth of Columbus.
2. What caused the cities of Europe to lose their trade with the Orient? Of what did the trade consist? Why did Europe need this trade?
3. What notions did men have about the size and shape of the earth? Describe a fifteenth-century map of the world.
4. In what manner did the Portuguese sailors find their way to India? Give an account of the voyage of Dias; of Vasco da Gama.
5. What were the ideas of Columbus in respect to the shape and size of the earth? By what route did he think India could be reached? Give an account of his efforts to secure ships and men for a westward voyage.

6. Describe the westward voyage of Columbus. Give an account of the discovery of land. Describe the return voyage.

7. Give an account of the later voyages of Columbus and of his last days.

8. What great thing did Columbus believe he had done? What great thing did he actually do?

TOPICS FOR SPECIAL READING OR COMPOSITION WORK

1. The Portuguese explorers: **1**, 1-13.
2. Columbus and his discoveries: **1**, 14-65.
3. The voyages of Columbus: **2**, 14-22.
4. Columbus's own account of his great voyage: **3**, 1-3.

The number in heavy-faced type refers to the book of the same number in the reading list at the end of the volume.

II

SPANISH VOYAGES AND EXPLORATIONS

And while he held above his head the conquering flag of Spain,
He waved his glancing sword and smote the waters of the main:
For Rome! For Leon! For Castile! thrice gave the cleaving blow,
And thus Balboa claimed the sea four hundred years ago.

T. B. Read

9. How the New World Came to be Called America.—The ships of Columbus chased the imaginary monsters from the sea, or at least chased them from men's minds. After the successful voyage of 1492, sailors everywhere grew bold and were eager to sail for the new-found lands. Among the first to cross the Atlantic in the wake of Columbus was Americus Vesputius, a native of Florence, Italy. This man, in 1501, sailing under the flag of Portugal, visited the coast of what is now Brazil, and not long afterward wrote an interesting account of what he saw. "I have found," he wrote, "in the southern part, a continent more populous and more full of animals than our Europe, Asia, and Africa." A letter from Vesputius thus describing Brazil fell into the hands of a German professor who at the time was preparing a book on geography. In this book he suggested that the region described by Vesputius be named the land of Americus (America) in honor of the man who discovered it. And it was named *America*. The professor probably intended that Brazil only should be called America, but the people of Europe fell into the



Americus Vesputius.

Born at Florence, Italy, in 1452, entered commercial service in Spain, accompanied four expeditions to the New World, on the first of which, in 1497, he claimed to have reached the continent of America before the Cabots and Columbus; died at Seville in 1512.

habit of giving this name to any part of the mainland of the New World. So the name America spread northward and southward, and in time the whole western continent came to be called America. Thus the New World was named after Americus Vesputius, and Columbus missed the glory of having it named after himself.

10. Balboa Discovers the Pacific Ocean.—The first European to see the great ocean lying west of America was the Spanish soldier Balboa. In 1513 this adventurer, roaming about on the Isthmus of Panama in search of gold, beheld from the top of a mountain a large body of water in the distance. From the direction in which the water lay, Balboa knew that he had discovered an unknown sea. Rejoicing in his good luck, he made his way to the shore, and wading into the water, carrying a banner of Spain in one hand and a sword in the other, took possession of



Ferdinand Magellan.

the new sea, claiming it in the name of his king. He might as well have claimed the moon and stars! He called the new sea the South Sea. We know it as the Pacific Ocean.

11. The First Voyage around the Globe.—About twenty years after Vesputius went to Brazil a far greater sailor passed along the Brazilian coast. This sailor was Ferdinand Magellan, who, with five ships and two hundred and seventy men, sailed from Spain in 1519, bound for the Molucca Islands, where he intended to load his ships with spices. By this time there was

plain sailing to these islands by the route round the Cape of Good Hope, but Magellan bravely resolved to reach them by sailing west. He crossed the Atlantic and sailed along the eastern coast of South America until he came to the strait that

now bears his name. Passing through this stormy Strait of Magellan, he sailed out (in 1520) on a sea whose surface was so quiet and peaceful that he gave it the name of *Pacific*.¹

When the great captain had passed the Strait of Magellan and his ships had begun to plow the broad waters of the Pacific, the sailors felt that they had gone far enough and wanted to turn back. They had but little food left, and they were afraid that they would get no more on the voyage. But Magellan said they must go forward even if they had to eat the ropes with which the ship was rigged. He had set out for the Indies, he



Magellan's voyage around the globe.

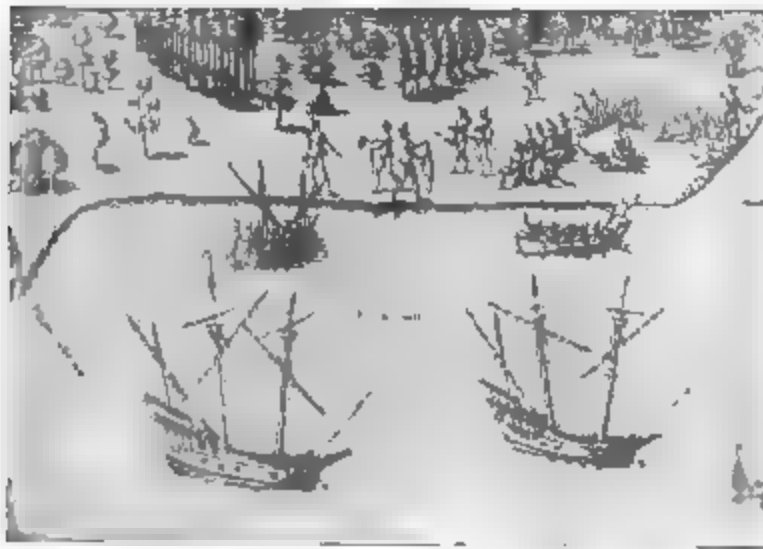
said, and to the Indies he was going, although they were ten thousand miles away. The ships kept on their course, but Magellan found that the fears of the sailors were by no means groundless. Food became scarcer and scarcer, and sure enough, before land was reached, the men, in order to get a little nourishment for their starving bodies, gnawed the very hides which covered the ropes of the rigging. After a voyage of terrible suffering Magellan at last (in 1521) reached the Philippine Islands. Here he was drawn into a battle with the natives and was killed.

After the death of Magellan a captain was chosen for the *Victoria*—one of the two vessels that still remained—and the voyage westward was continued. Having stopped at the Moluccas to take on board a cargo of precious stones and spices, the

¹ The word "pacific" comes from the Latin word *pacificus*, which means mild, peaceful.

Victoria crossed the Indian Ocean, rounded the Cape of Good Hope, and reached the little harbor of San Lucar, in Spain, in September, 1522. Of the two hundred and seventy men who had sailed out of that harbor three years before only thirty-one returned. But that little group of half-starved sailors had made a voyage almost as important as that made by Columbus. They had done what Columbus had tried to do and failed: they had reached the far East by sailing toward the west. And they had done another thing that had never before been done by man: *they had sailed entirely around the globe.*

12. Spanish Explorers in North America.—About the time Magellan was on his voyage around the world, great things were beginning to happen in the New World. In 1519 Hernando Cortés, a dashing Spanish commander, conquered Mexico, and a dozen years later another Spaniard, Francisco Pizarro, overran and plundered the rich and populous country of Peru. These men were in pursuit of gold, and it would be interesting to follow them and learn how they became masters of great heaps of gold, rooms full of gold, ships laden with gold; but our story takes us in a different direction: we must learn what was happening within the borders of our own country.



Landing in Florida.

The Spaniards in their search for trade and for gold looked northward as well as southward. In 1513 Ponce de Leon, a man who had come out with Columbus on his second voyage and who was no longer young, sailed from Porto Rico for a region where he

had heard there was not only gold, but something far more precious than gold; he had heard that in this region there was a stream that would give endless youth to those who drank



Explorations of Ponce de Leon, De Soto, and Coronado.

of its waters. While looking for this stream he landed on a coast where the flowers were very beautiful, and he called the country *Florida*, the Land of Flowers. He wandered through Florida, bathing in every stream and drinking from every spring. The old man did not find everlasting youth, of course, but he gave Florida to Spain.

In 1539 another seeker after gold appeared on the coast of Florida. This was Hernando de Soto, the governor of Cuba and one of the leading men of Spain. De Soto landed at Tampa Bay with an army of six hundred men, and marched northward through the marshes and dense woods of Florida. When he reached what is now northern Alabama he turned westward and followed a zigzag course until he found himself (in 1541) on the shores of the Mississippi River—the Father of Waters. On his march he had lost many of his men, for the Indians along his path regarded him as a cruel enemy, and they harmed him all the harm they could. On reaching the Mississippi River De Soto fell sick of a fever and died. He was in the middle of the great river he had discovered.

without any gold in their hands, made their way back to Cuba.

At the very time De Soto was marching westward toward the Mississippi, in the far-off plains of what is now New Mexico there was another Spaniard tramping eastward. This was Coronado, in search of the Seven Cities of Cibola. These cities were described to the Spaniards as being the richest and most beautiful in the world; they were said to contain an untold amount of gold and silver; and to be situated in a country where the rivers were six miles wide and where the fishes were as big as horses. It was to find these wonderful cities that Coronado, in 1540, set out from Mexico. In the southern part of what is now New Mexico he found a wretched little Indian village where the houses were built of mud. This is all that was ever seen of the Seven Cities of Cibola. Coronado, however, did not give up the search until he had pushed eastward as far as the plains of what is now the State of Kansas. If he had gone a little farther "he might have shaken hands with De Soto and with him wept tears of disappointment," for Coronado's hands, as well as De Soto's, were empty of gold.

QUESTIONS ON THE TEXT

1. Explain how the New World came to be called America.
2. Give an account of the discovery of the Pacific Ocean by Balboa.
3. By what route did Magellan undertake to sail to the Molucca Islands? Give a full account of this great voyage.
4. Tell the story of Ponce de Leon; of De Soto; of Coronado.

REVIEW AND READING REFERENCES

1. Give an event connected with each of the following dates: 1487, 1492, 1497.
2. Give an event connected with each of the following places: Genoa, Palos, San Salvador.
3. Tell something very important about each of the following persons: Columbus, Bartholomeu Dias, Isabella.
4. Tell what you can about the first voyage of Columbus.
5. Topics for special reading or composition work: Americus Vesputius: 2, 23-31. Magellan's expedition: 1, 94-144. Hernando de Soto: 4, 94-107. Balboa: 2, 39-45. Ponce de Leon: 2, 47-51.

III

ENGLAND BECOMES THE MISTRESS OF THE SEAS

The name of Raleigh stands highest among the statesmen of England who advanced the colonization of the United States.—*George Bancroft.*

13. The New World Claimed by Spain.—Thus far our story has been chiefly about Spain. It was Spain that sent out Columbus and Magellan; it was a Spaniard who stood in the waters of the Pacific and took possession of the great ocean in



The Line of Demarcation.

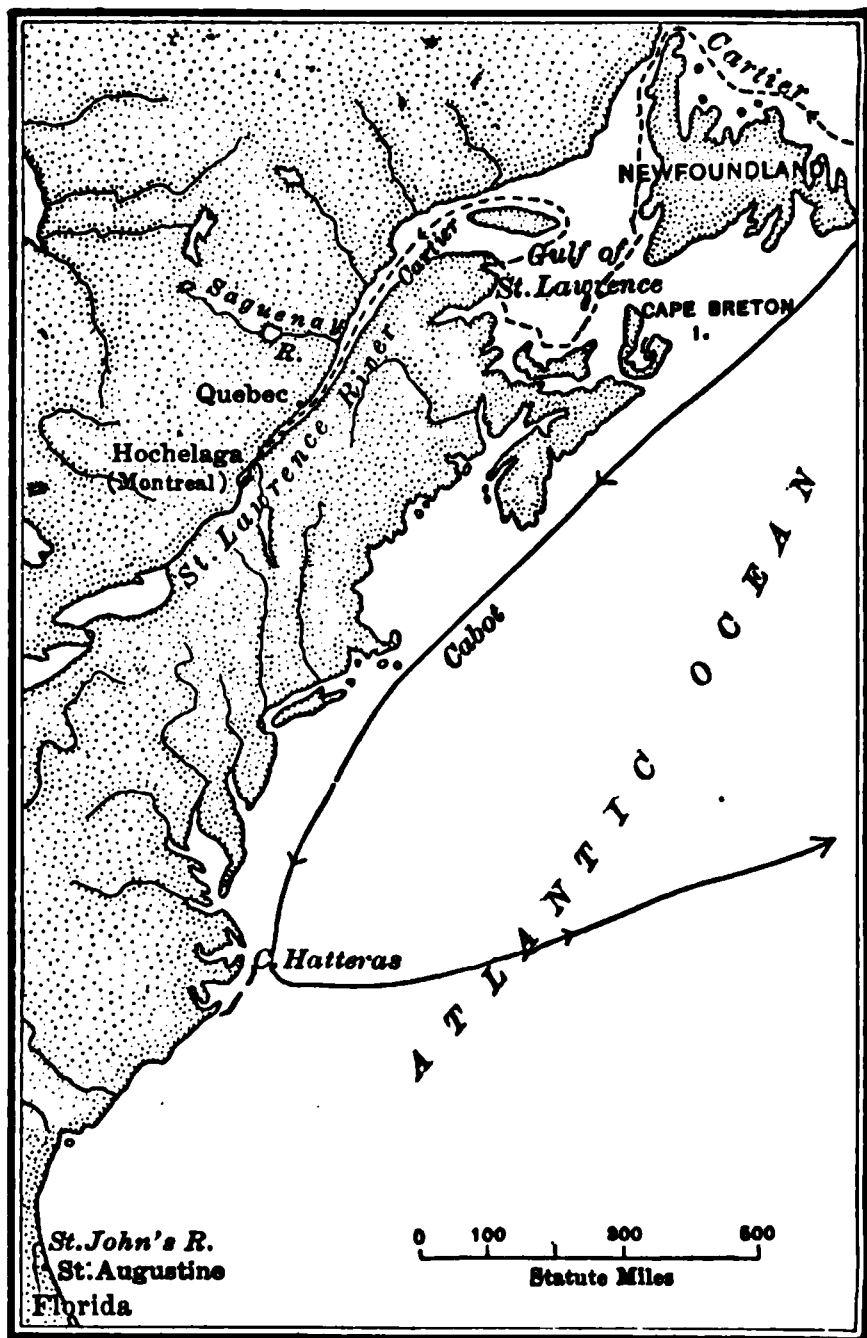
the name of the king; they were Spanish generals who conquered the West Indies, the greater part of South America, and Mexico; they were Spanish explorers who first made their way into the wild regions of North America. Spain thought the New World belonged entirely to her. She indeed agreed that Portugal might have Brazil,¹ but all the rest of South America and all of North

America she claimed as her own. But her claims amounted to nothing unless she could defend them with her sword, and other nations were already disputing them.

14. England Claims a Part of the New World.—The country that was to give Spain the most trouble in the New World

¹ In 1494 Spain and Portugal, in accordance with the wishes of Pope Alexander VI, made a treaty agreeing that a meridian 370 leagues west of the Cape Verde Islands should be known as the "Line of Demarcation," and that all "heathen lands" east of this line should belong to Portugal, while all "heathen lands" west of the line should belong to Spain. In 1500 Cabral, a Portuguese captain, started to India by route round the Cape of Good Hope, but he swung too far west and touched the coast of Brazil. Since the new-found land was west of the Line of Demarcation, Brazil was claimed by Portugal.

was England. When the news of the successful voyage of Columbus reached the little island nation, Henry VII, its king,



like the other rulers of his time, began to think of the riches that might come to him from the new-found lands. So when John Cabot, a native of Venice, in 1496 applied to King Henry for permission to fit out a ship for a voyage to the New World, the permission was cheerfully given. Cabot set out from Bristol, and "in the year of our Lord 1497 discovered that land which no man before that time¹ had attempted, on the 24th of June, about five o'clock in the morning."

"That land" may have been Newfoundland or Cape Breton, or it may

have been some point on the mainland of North America. The region discovered by Cabot was cold and barren, and was with-

¹ For a long time it was believed that the North American coast was discovered centuries before this voyage of Cabot. According to the sagas, or Scandinavian legends, a sea-rover named Leif Ericson sailed from Iceland about the year 1000, and steering in a southwesterly direction, explored the American coast as far south as New England. Leif is said to have landed somewhere on the coast of what is now Massachusetts or Rhode Island, where he made a settlement called Vinland, but historians are unable to decide where this Vinland really was. Indeed, many historians no longer believe the story of Leif Ericson and the settlement of Vinland at all, for they doubt the truth of the sagas upon which the story rests. Even if the voyage of Leif was actually made, it is likely that all memory of it had faded from men's minds by the time of Columbus.

out gold or silver or riches of any kind. Cabot took possession of the country in the name of England, and the thrifty king gave him only fifty dollars for his reward.



Part of Sebastian Cabot's map of 1544.

15. France Claims a Part of the New World.—France also desired a part of the New World. In 1534 the King of France, snapping his fingers at the claims of the King of Spain, ordered Jacques Cartier to sail up the St. Lawrence River and take possession of the country along its banks. This Cartier did in 1535, and the St. Lawrence region was settled by the French and was held by them for more than two hundred years.

About thirty years after the voyage of Cartier, some Huguenots—French Protestants—made a settlement at the mouth of the St. John's River in Florida. The King of Spain thought that the French had no right to trespass upon Florida. So he sent a great force of ships and men against the French settlement, and it was wiped from the face of the earth. About forty miles down the coast the Spaniards themselves made a settlement (in 1565) and called it St. Augustine—the oldest city built by white men in what is now the United States.

16. England Strengthens her Navy.—After the voyage of Cabot the English sent no more ships to America for many years. And they had good reason for not sending any. In the early part of the sixteenth century Spain had a very



The great battle between the British fleet and the Spanish Armada.

navy and England had a very weak one. If England in the days of Columbus and Henry VII had sent out ships to the New World, Spain would have swept them from the sea, and if the English had tried at that time to make settlements on the coast of America, the Spaniards would have attacked the settlements and destroyed them, as they destroyed the little French settlement in Florida. England wanted to share in the prizes of the New World, but she saw clearly that she could make no headway there unless she had a strong navy. She made her ships larger and stronger, she manned them with well-trained crews, and she armed them with heavy guns. In this way she soon came to have as good a navy as any nation of Europe, and by the end of the sixteenth century many fierce battles had shown that England and not Spain was the mistress of the ocean.

17. The Daring Deeds of Sir Francis Drake.—Many were the brave seamen who helped to build up the navy of England and beat down the navy of Spain, but the bravest and greatest of all was Sir Francis Drake. The story of the deeds of this mighty man would fill a large book, and all we can do here is to get a glimpse of him as he hurried over the world in pursuit of the Spaniards, sinking their ships, taking from them their gold, and plundering their towns. While yet a young man he was already so famous that once, when he sailed into Plymouth (England) on a Sunday morning at sermon time, his arrival caused so much excitement that the people left the preacher alone in the pulpit while they ran to the wharf to see the man who had dealt Spain such heavy blows.

In 1577 Drake, starting from England, passed through the Strait of Magellan and sailed along the western coast of South



Fra Drake

Sir Francis Drake.

(With autograph.)

Born in Devonshire, about 1540; died off Porto Bello, in 1596.

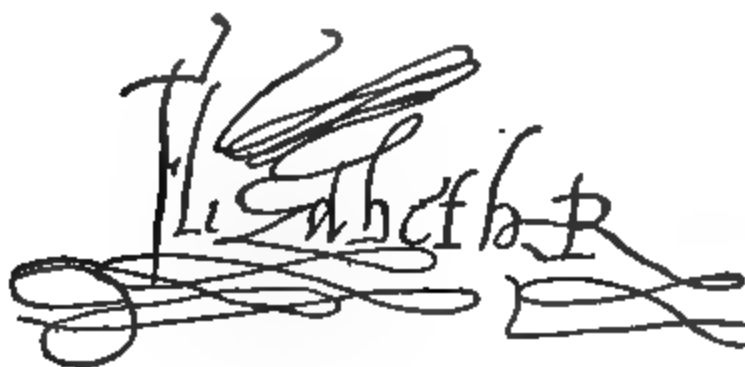
America to Peru, where he plundered some Spanish ships of gold and silver amounting to three millions of dollars. From Peru he sailed northward along the western coast of America until he came to what is now California, which he called New Albion. From California he sped west to England by the Cape of Good Hope. He had sailed around the world, something no Englishman had ever before done.

18. The Destruction of the "Invincible Armada."—But the greatest day in Drake's life was when, in his ship *Revenge*, he led the attack against the Spanish Armada. This was an enormous fleet of 130 vessels and 30,000 men, which Spain had fitted out with the aim of giving a death-blow to England's navy and to England herself. This "Invincible Armada," as it was called, met Drake and Hawkins and Howard and the other "sea-dogs" of England in the English Channel in May, 1588. The fighting was furious, but Drake and his companions won. Many of the Spanish ships were destroyed, and those that escaped were soon lost in a terrible storm. This defeat of the Armada was the greatest event in the history of England.

19. England Undertakes to Plant Colonies in America.—Why did the defeat of the Spanish Armada mean so much to England? Because, with the Spanish ships at the bottom of the sea, England could send her navy across the ocean and plant colonies on the coast of America in peace and safety. Indeed, she had begun to make settlements on that coast even before the great battle in the Channel was fought. In 1583 Sir Humphrey Gilbert left England with five vessels and a large number of men, with the purpose of planting a colony somewhere in the New World; but one disaster after another overtook the fleet, and in the end Gilbert himself was lost. One night, during a heavy storm, the light on his ship went out, and he and his crew were never heard from more.

He sat upon the deck,
The Book was in his hand;
"Do not fear! Heaven is as near,"
He said, "by water as by land."

The work begun by Gilbert was taken up and carried forward by his half-brother, Sir Walter Raleigh. This nobleman was a

A handwritten signature in cursive script, reading 'Elizabeth', with elaborate flourishes extending from the letters.

Autograph of Queen Elizabeth.

favorite of Elizabeth, the queen, who gladly helped him with his plans. In 1585 Raleigh sent out to America about one hundred men under Ralph Lane to plant a colony on the coast of what is now

North Carolina. Elizabeth, who never married, suggested that the colony be called *Virginia* in honor of her own maiden life, and Virginia it was called. Lane settled at Roanoke Island, but his colony did not flourish, and, after a year of misfortunes, he and his men were carried back to England by Drake, who happened to stop at the island on one of his homeward voyages.

Raleigh was deeply in earnest about his plans for America, and, in the face of many discouragements, sent out (in 1587) a second colony to Roanoke with John White as governor. This time there were women and children as well as men among the colonists. Governor White soon returned to England to get more colonists and fresh supplies of food. He left behind him a daughter, Eleanor Dare, and a new-born grandchild, Virginia Dare, the first child born of English parents on American soil. White never saw his family or his colony again. When he returned three years later, not a soul of all the colonists was found. What became of them nobody knows.

Raleigh could now go no further with his plan of making settlements in the New World, for enemies were crowding around him and all he could do to save his own life. At last he could no



Sir Walter Raleigh.

do this, for in 1618, when Elizabeth, his best friend, was dead, he was beheaded on a false charge of treason by order of King James. He died as bravely as a great man ought. As he was about to lay his head on the block, he felt the edge of the ax and said, with a smile: "This is sharp medicine, but it will cure all diseases."

QUESTIONS ON THE TEXT

1. What part of the New World was claimed by Spain? What was the "Line of Demarcation?"
2. What important voyage and discovery was made by John Cabot?
3. What parts of the New World were claimed by France?
4. Why did England in the sixteenth century increase her navy?
5. Give an account of the deeds of Sir Francis Drake.
6. Give an account of the destruction of the Invincible Armada.
7. What attempt at colonization in America was made by Sir Humphrey Gilbert? By Sir Walter Raleigh?

REVIEW AND READING REFERENCES

1. Dates: 1492, 1522.
2. Places: Genoa, Palos, San Salvador.
3. Persons: Columbus, Americus Vesputius, Balboa, Magellan, De Soto.
4. Tell what you can about: the first voyage of Columbus; the voyage of Magellan; the Seven Cities of Cibola.
5. Topics: Jacques Cartier: 2, 129-137. Sir Francis Drake: 4, 108-123; also 2, 152-160. Sir Walter Raleigh: 2, 166-175. Leif Ericson (Leif the Lucky): 2, 9-14; also 7, 27-30.

IV

OUR COUNTRY THREE HUNDRED YEARS AGO

The pioneers fought their way westward through wood like a bullet crushing through a board. Every step was retarded by a live, a dying, or a dead branch. The very trees, as if dreading the savage attack of the white man, held out their bony arms and fingers, catching here a jacket and there a foot, in the attempt to stay the invasion of their silent haunts. — *A. B. Hulbert.*



The old city gate at St. Augustine.

1 Introduction.—More than a hundred years had passed since the voyage of Cabot, and still no Englishmen were living in North America, unless indeed we can believe (as many do believe) that those poor lost settlers of Roanoke were still alive and were living with Indians or were wandering in the forests. In 1600, excepting a few fishing-stations along the New England coast, the only white settlement that could be found in what is now the United States was the little Spanish settlement, St. Augustine, in Florida. But Raleigh had begun a work that was to be carried forward, and in 1600 the day was not far distant when Englishmen were to come to America in large numbers and were coming to stay. Before they begin to arrive let us take a look at the country which was to be first theirs and afterward ours. Let us try to form in our minds a picture of our country as it was three hundred years ago.¹

20. The Forests.—In the first place, our country in 1600 was one vast forest. From the Atlantic to the Pacific and from the Great Lakes to the Gulf of Mexico it was trees, trees, trees. It is true there were here and there little clearings where Indians

¹ See map on inside of front cover of this book.

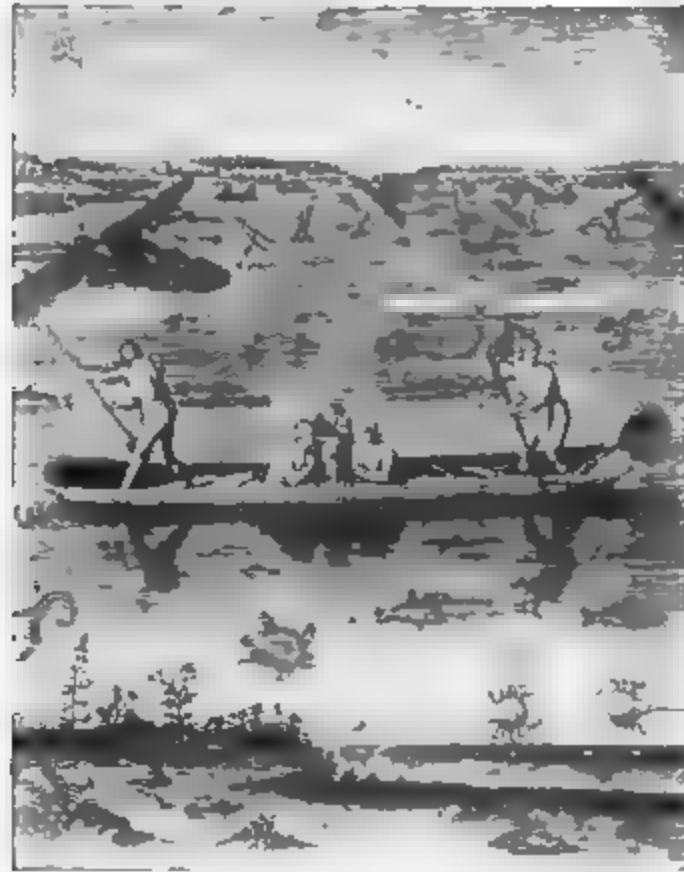
raised corn, and in the western and southwestern country there were treeless regions (prairies) and arid mountains and plains, but the country taken as a whole was well covered with trees, with great pines and poplars and oaks and walnuts and chestnuts and elms. So if you want a correct idea of how our country looked to the first settlers, shut your eyes upon the cities and towns and well-tilled fields and well-built roads of to-day, and think of great, dense, dark woods.

21. Indian Trails and Rivers of the New World.—In the next place, our country in 1600 was without roads. There were paths (trails) made by Indians and buffaloes, but these were so narrow that in the forests not even a horse with a pack of furs on its back could get along. These trails, however, were the beginnings of roads for the white man. They were first widened so that the horse could move along with its pack. Then they were widened still further so that wagons and carts could pass over them. Later these trails were followed when building some of our great railroads. So when you are flying across the country in an express train you may be following a path that was made ages ago by the buffalo and the Indian. But at present, while you are trying to get a notion of our country as it looked in 1600, do not think of railroads and well-built highways and well-paved streets, but try to think of a country that had no roads at all.

The only roads the early settlers found were the water-roads, the rivers. But the system of waterways that lay before the colonists was the finest in the world. Look at a good river map of the United States and observe how perfect is its network of rivers. Observe how the branches of the Potomac touch fingers with the branches of the Ohio, and how the branches of the Missouri touch fingers with the branches of the Columbia, thus forming an almost unbroken waterway from the Atlantic to the Pacific. Observe, too, how the rivers flowing into Lake Erie and Lake Michigan extend almost to the sources of the rivers that empty into the Ohio and the Mississippi, thus forming an almost unbroken waterway from the Great Lakes to the Gulf of Mexico. The early colonists had no railroads or broad,

well-built highways, but the grand system of water-roads which is ours was also theirs.

22. Fishes, Birds, and Animals of the New World.—The United States, then, in 1600, was a vast roadless forest through which flowed hundreds, yes, thousands of rivers. On the sur-



Indians fishing.¹

face of the rivers could be seen Indians darting along in their light birch-bark canoes. In the rivers there were many kinds of fish—perch and pike, trout, shad, salmon, and bass. In the forests there were many kinds of birds—great eagles, hawks, owls, wild turkeys, and pigeons. The wild turkey was excellent food, and it sometimes weighed as much as fifty pounds. The flocks of pigeons were sometimes so great that they darkened the sky when flying and broke down the limbs of trees when they alighted. In the forests also there were wild animals in abundance. In the woods along the Atlantic coast there were

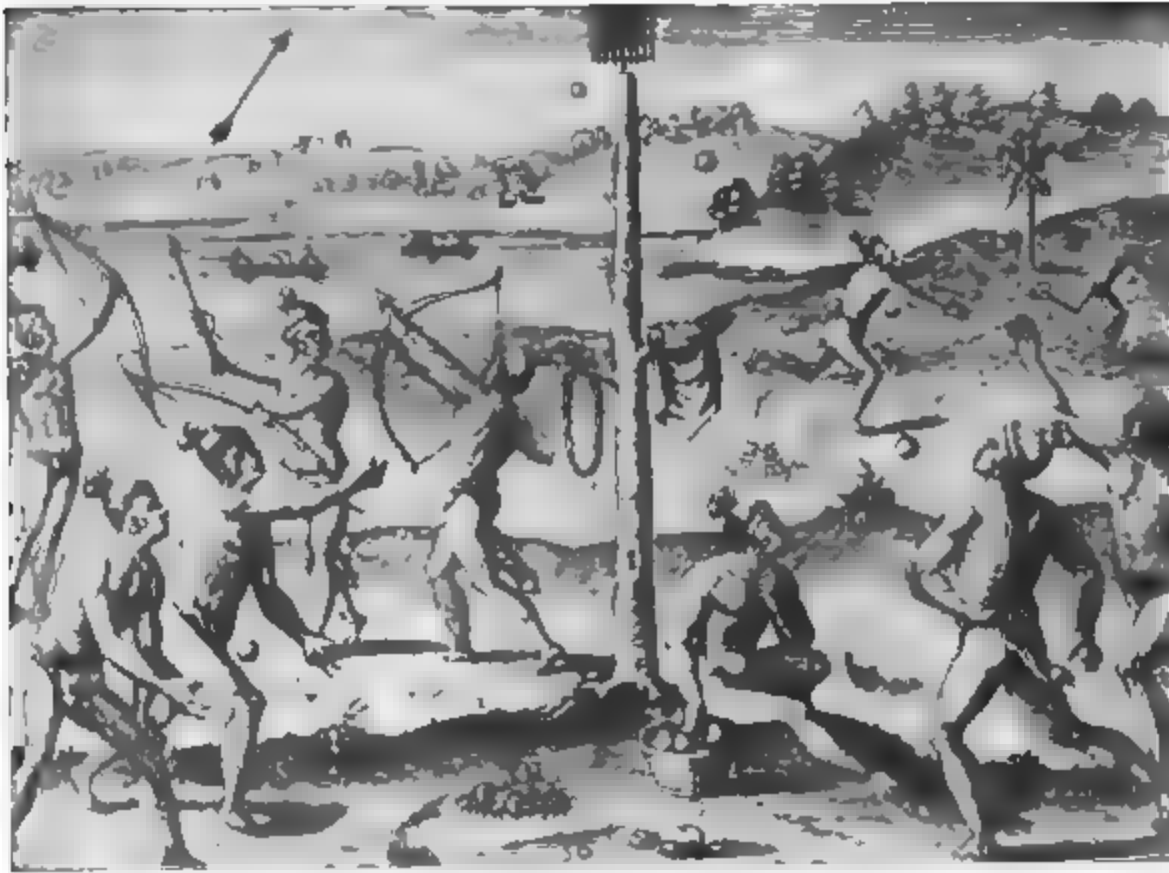
¹This and the following pictures in this chapter are taken from an old book published in 1590. They represent Indian life at the coming of the white man.



Indians declaring war.

rabbits, squirrels, foxes, beavers, raccoons, opossum, deer, wolves, bears. Farther inland the animals were even larger and more numerous. It is said that a traveler standing on a hill in the far West once saw at one time a buffalo, an elk, an antelope, and a panther—a small menagerie in itself. Fur-bearing animals were found almost everywhere, and the farther north the hunter went the better he found the furs. The most important of all the animals was the bison or buffalo, great herds of which roamed over the region between the Alleghanies and the Rockies.

23. Indians.—But the most important inhabitant of the forest was the Indian. You remember how Columbus on his first voyage found red men and by mistake (p. 6) gave them the name of Indian, a name that has clung to them ever since. The Spaniards found Indians in South America and Mexico; De Soto found them in Florida; Cartier found them in Canada; and Englishmen found them all along the Atlantic coast. They were not always found in great numbers, but they were always pres-



Games of the Indian youths.

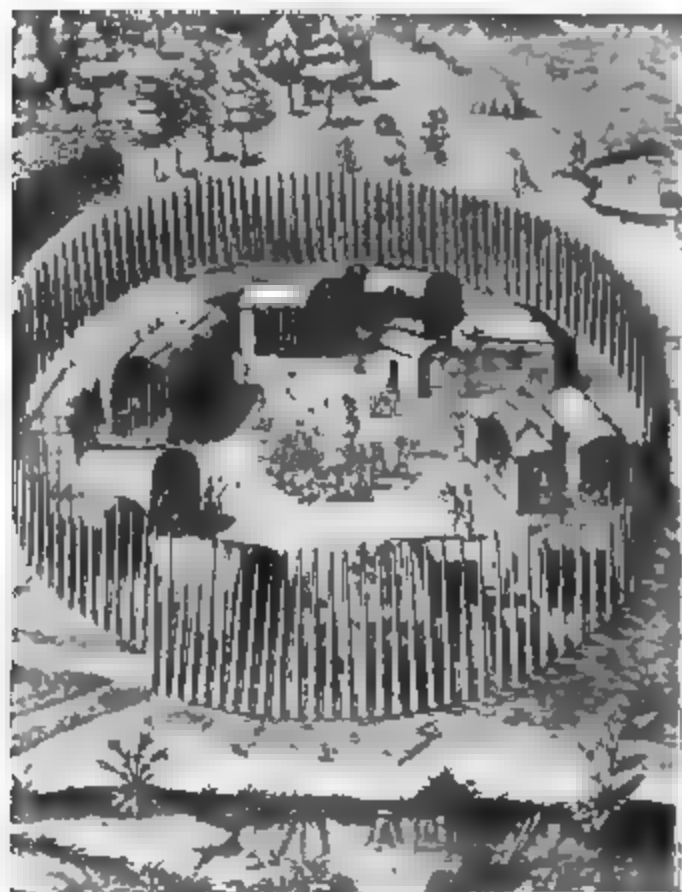
ent; wherever the white man went there was the Indian standing across his path.

The Indians of North America were for the most part wild and uncivilized. They lived in huts (wigwams) made of skins or bark stretched over frames of wood. The Iroquois Indians—a tribe occupying the region afterward known as New York—lived in what were known as “long houses.” The long house was a long, low house in which lived twenty or thirty families, each family occupying its own apartment.

Government among the Indians was conducted by tribes. A number of families related by blood would join together to form a clan, and a number of clans would join and form a tribe. The tribe was governed by a chief and a council of wise men.

The religion of the Indian consisted in a worship of the world of nature around him. He saw God in the flowing river, in the sunshine and in the storm. His heaven was a happy hunting-ground where he had his dog and his ~~h~~ . . . , and where he could hunt forever.

The Indians lived chiefly by hunting and fishing, although they did a little farming and raised beans, tobacco, pumpkins, potatoes, and, most important of all, corn. The women did the



An Indian village.

housework and tilled the soil, while the men did the hunting and fighting.

As a hunter the Indian had wonderful skill and power. He could run almost as fast as a deer, and he could rival the bloodhound in keeping close on the trail of his victim. "He could imitate the gobble of the wild turkey, the whistle of birds, or the bark of the wolf." When he advanced upon his prey it was with a tread as quiet and as soft as that of a cat advancing upon a bird, but when he

sprang upon his victim it was with the strength and the wildness of a panther.

In war the Indian was the most terrible of foes. As long as he smoked the pipe of peace he was gentle and kind, but when the peace-pipe was broken and his war blood was stirred he was as wild and as cruel as the beasts in the forests around him. Indeed, he was more cruel than these beasts, for the brute is satisfied if it simply kills its enemy, but the Indian felt that he must torture his enemy as well as kill him. He would carve a captive alive, cut out his tongue, or slowly burn him to death and dance for joy as he beheld the agonies of his dying foe. Such was the red man whom the white man had to face wherever he went in the new-found world.

24. The New World a Place for Labor; Hardships.—You

ought now to see clearly that our country in 1600 was a place in which a great deal of hard work was to be done. If the land was to be made fit for tillage, the vast forests would have to be cleared, and the settler's ax must swing from morning to night all the year round. Besides, roads must be opened, dwellings must be erected, and mills and stores and workshops must be built. It ought to be clear also that life in our country in 1600 meant hardships and much suffering. There could be no comfort so long as there were no houses or roads, and until the fields began to yield their crops there was always the risk of not having enough food to eat. Then there were the enemies of the forest, panthers, bears, wolves, Indians: these were bound to fill the life of the settler with danger. America in 1600 was, therefore, no place for idlers, or for those who loved their ease, or for cowards. It was for those who were willing to work hard and to face all kinds of hardships and dangers. It was a place to be won by those who could use an ax and spade and plow as well as the rifle and sword.

QUESTIONS ON THE TEXT

1. To what extent was our country originally a forest?
2. Give an account of the roads in 1600; of the rivers.
3. What fishes, birds, and animals were plentiful in America three hundred years ago?
4. How did it happen that the red men of America were called Indians? To what extent did Indians abound in the New World? Describe the houses of the Indians; their government; their religion; their occupations; their hunting; their warfare.
5. Why was the New World no place for idlers or cowards?

REVIEW AND READING REFERENCES

1. Dates: 1492, 1522, 1588.
2. Places: Genoa, Palos, San Salvador, St. Augustine.
3. Persons: Americus Vesputius, Balboa, Magellan, De Soto, Cartier, Cabot, Drake, Raleigh, Virginia Dare.
4. Tell what you can about: the voyage of Magellan; the Seven Cities of Cibola; the Invincible Armada.
5. Topics: The character and customs of the Indians: 4, 22-460-472. Indian life: 3, 23-26.

V

AROUND THE CHESAPEAKE BAY: VIRGINIA, MARYLAND

Old cradle of an infant world,
In which a nestling empire lay
Struggling awhile, ere she unfurled
Her gallant wings and soared away :
All hail! thou birthplace of the growing west,
Thou seem'st the towering eagle's ruined nest.

From James Kirke Paulding's Ode to Jamestown.



The old tower at
Jamestown.

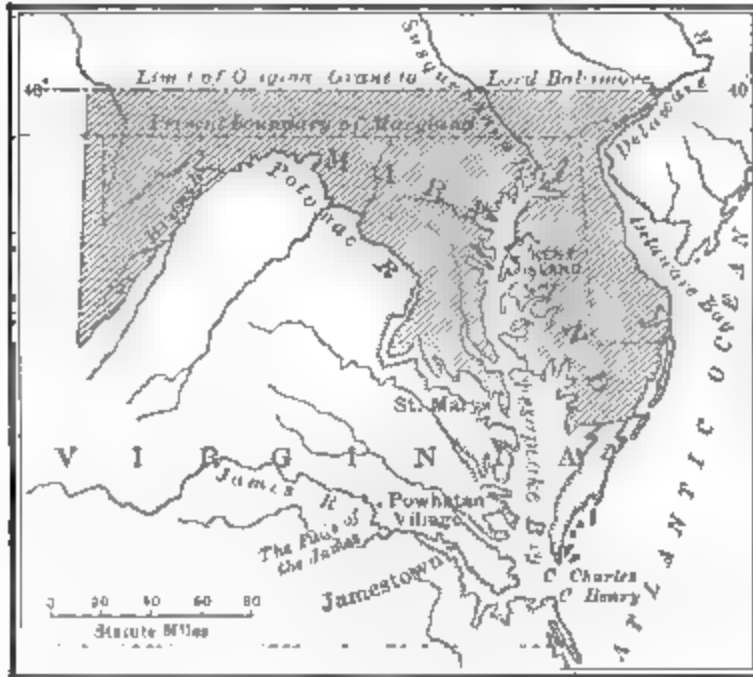
Introduction.—Spain, France, Holland, Sweden, and England all wanted a share of the great American wilderness, and all joined in a scramble to get possession of the Atlantic coast of North America. Spain gained possession of Florida, but could go no farther north; France seized upon the St. Lawrence region and upon Nova Scotia, but could go no farther south. Holland and Sweden, as we shall learn, tried to get a foothold on the coast, but

were pushed off, and England at last was left the mistress of the seaboard from Nova Scotia to Florida.

25. English Settlements along the Atlantic Coast.—The early English settlements were all made close to the ocean. Of the thirteen colonies that became States each had its beginning on some bay or river or sound where there was a good chance for trading in furs, for you must know that furs have played a large part in the history of our country. New Hampshire had its beginnings on the Piscataqua River; Massachusetts, around Massachusetts Bay; Rhode Island, around Narragansett Bay; Connecticut, along the Connecticut River; New York and New Jersey, around New York Bay; Delaware and Pennsylvania, around the Delaware Bay; Maryland and Virginia, around the Chesapeake Bay; North Carolina, on the Albemarle Sound;

South Carolina, at the mouth of the Ashley River; and Georgia, at the mouth of the Savannah River.

26. The First English Settlement in America.—The first English settlement in America was made around what was called "the finest bay in the world." In 1607 about a hundred colonists from London settled on an island a few miles from the mouth of a river which flows into the Chesapeake Bay. This settlement was called Jamestown, in honor of James I, King of England, and the river was called James River. The Jamestown colonists were sent out by a company of London merchants who had obtained from the king a charter giving them the right to make settlements on the American coast anywhere between Cape Fear and the Potomac River, a region which was already known as Virginia.



Jamestown and vicinity.

As soon as the Virginia colonists landed they began to prepare for the new and strange kind of life that was before them. They at once built a rude fort in order that they might defend themselves against attack by the Indians who were lurking in the woods around them. They provided themselves with a church by nailing a board between two trees for a pulpit and stretching a piece of canvas overhead for a roof. For dwellings they either built log cabins or dug themselves caves. They raised chickens, and where they found a little patch of clear ground they planted corn.

Most of the colonists came over with the expectation of making a fortune quickly. In 1608 Captain Newport brought over a barge built so that it could be taken to pieces and put together

again. He and his company were ordered to ascend the James River as far as the falls, then to carry their barge beyond the falls and descend to the South Sea—the Pacific Ocean. He was ordered not to return without a lump of gold to show that he had actually reached the South Sea. He found no gold, and of course he did not reach the Pacific Ocean by way of the James River.

27. Captain John Smith.—The colonists at first did not know how to live in the strange New World, and they could learn how to do so only by experience, and a sad experience it was. Suffering and starvation overtook them, and it seemed that the little settlement would be lost. But it was saved by the wisdom



Captain John Smith

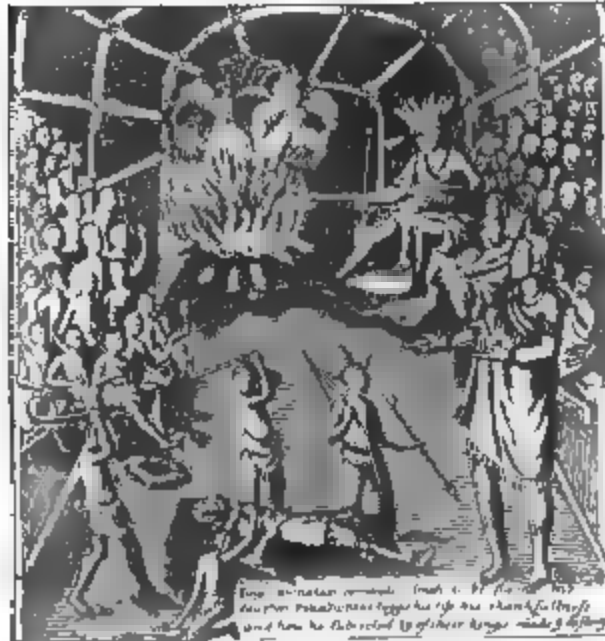
and firmness of Captain John Smith, who, by the consent of all, was chosen to direct the affairs of the colony. Before coming to America, Smith had led a life of strange adventure in Europe. While he was still a boy he entered the army and fought in the Netherlands. He then went to fight against the Turks, and, if we can believe all he tells us, passed through many thrilling experiences while in southern Europe. According to his own account, he was thrown overboard from a boat and was rescued

by a pirate; was left for dead on a field of battle; was taken prisoner and sent to Constantinople as a slave; escaped from slavery by killing his master; and in the sight of two armies killed three Turkish champions in a series of single combats. After long wanderings through Europe, Smith returned to England about 1605. In 1606 he came with the Virginia colonists to America.

Smith was a man of bold and venturesome spirit and was at the same time a man of excellent sense and judgment. While at the head of the colony he managed its affairs wisely. Many of the colonists were gentlemen who were not accustomed to

work, and many were worthless fellows who were too lazy to work. Smith saw clearly that the New World was no place for drones or idlers, and told the colonists plainly that everybody must work and that everybody that did not work should not eat. This had an excellent effect. Fine gentlemen now began to chop wood, and idlers began digging the ground.

Besides teaching the colonists to work, Smith did much to keep the peace between the white men and the Indians. He visited the Indians in their wigwams and traded with them, giving them beads and trinkets and knives for the corn that was so much needed. Once,—this is one of Smith's own stories—he was captured by a band of Indians and carried to Powhatan, the great chief of a tribe that lived not very far from Jamestown. He was condemned to die. His arms were tied, his head was laid upon a stone, and the club with which he was to be killed was raised; but before it fell, Pocahontas, a young daughter of Powhatan, threw herself between the prisoner and the deadly club, and the life of Smith was saved.¹ The Indians now made a treaty with Smith and allowed him to return to Jamestown.



Pocahontas saving the life of Captain John Smith.

From a picture in Smith's History.

In 1609 Smith met with an accident and was so severely wounded that he had to return to England for treatment. He took with him some flying-squirrels for the amusement of King James. The colony lost its best friend when it lost Smith, and it soon felt this loss most keenly.

28. The Starving Time; the Arrival of Delawarr.²—In less

¹ Some historians doubt the truth of the story of Pocahontas and Smith.

² Also written *Delaware*. The State named for him is always called *Delaware*.

than a year after the departure of Smith the people were again starving. This time the suffering was so very horrible that you would not wish to read a description of it. Things became so bad that the few settlers who were still alive decided to return to England. With heavy hearts they bade farewell to Jamestown and started on their homeward voyage, but as they neared the sea they met Lord Delawarr, their new governor, coming to the relief of the colony with three ships laden with provisions. The colonists returned to their deserted homes, and the settlement was never again abandoned. With the founding of Jamestown the English had come to America to stay.

29. The Cultivation of Tobacco.—Lord Delawarr soon resigned as governor, and Sir Thomas Dale was chosen in his stead. Under the firm hand of Dale, Jamestown took on new life. The settlers were given land of their own to till, and after each man began to till his own field there was always plenty of food. In 1612 John Rolfe, who married the Indian maiden Pocahontas, began to raise tobacco and send it to England, where it brought a very high price. The cultivation of this weed proved to be so profitable that nearly every colonist became a tobacco-grower. Even the gardens and streets of Jamestown were planted with tobacco.



Pocahontas.

30. The First American Legislature.—When it was learned in England that money could be made in Virginia by raising tobacco, settlers came over much faster, and new settlements sprang up along the James River. By 1619 there were so many people in the colony that it was necessary to have a new form of government. In this year the people chose representatives to meet at Jamestown and make laws for the colony. This House of Burgesses, as it was called, was our first American legislature. It met in a church, and its meeting marked the beginning



An early picture of Jamestown.

of our system of government by the people, for in choosing the lawmakers every freeman had a vote.

31. The Beginning of Slavery in Virginia.—Unfortunately, however, all men in Virginia were not to be free, for in the very year in which free government was established in the colony, twenty negroes were brought to Jamestown in a Dutch vessel and sold as slaves. Nobody thought there was any harm in this, for at that time negroes all over the world were bought and sold very much as horses were bought and sold. The negroes proved to be just the kind of workmen needed for the tobacco-fields, and slavery in Virginia grew as the cultivation of tobacco grew, and that was very fast indeed.

32. The Founding of Maryland.—By the time Virginia was well on its feet a sister colony began to be planted at the north not very far away. This was the colony of Maryland, which had its beginnings in 1634, when Leonard Calvert, with about two hundred colonists, landed on the banks of a small stream which flows into the Potomac River and began a settlement which was called St. Mary's. Leonard Calvert was the first governor of Maryland, but the real founder of the colony was George Calvert, who held the title of Lord Baltimore. This good and noble Catholic and he wished to worship

in a Catholic church. This he could not do in England, for the laws there were very severe against Catholics. So Calvert, like



The first Lord Baltimore.

Born at Kipling, Yorkshire, England, about 1580; member of Parliament, secretary of state. He died in 1632.

many other Englishmen of his time, looked to America as a place where he might worship in his own way. He secured from the king, who was his warm friend, a charter giving him a large tract of land in the region of Chesapeake Bay. He did not live to take part in the founding of the colony, but after his death all the rights granted in the charter were conferred on his son, Cecil Calvert, who took up the work begun by his father and sent out his brother Leonard to act as the governor of the Maryland colony.

33. Self-Government in Maryland; Religious Freedom; Quarrel with

Virginia.—The Maryland colonists were not compelled to undergo such sufferings as their Virginia neighbors had passed through. They won the good will of the Indians and learned from them how to bake pone and fry hominy. They began at once to till the soil and were soon raising good crops of tobacco. By the terms of their charter Cecil Calvert was made proprietor (owner) of all the land of the colony and was given power to make laws with the consent of the freemen. But the people were unwilling that the proprietor should be the law-maker. They demanded for themselves the right to make laws, and the right was given them. So the settlers of Maryland as well as the settlers of Virginia very early began to enjoy the right to manage their own affairs. And they also enjoyed the precious right of worshiping God in their own way, for one of the early laws of Maryland provided that no person of the Christian faith should be harmed on account of his religion.

The Virginia colonists did not at first look kindly on the Maryland colonists, for they thought that the land that was given to Calvert really belonged to Virginia. Indeed, William Claiborne

a Virginian who had a fur-trading station on Kent Island, in the Chesapeake Bay, refused to give the island to Calvert, and the two colonies came to blows before the island was surrendered.

By 1650 Virginia and Maryland were both thriving and were laying deep the foundations of an English civilization on American soil. As they push their settlements along the banks of rivers and creeks that flow into the Chesapeake, let us turn from them for a while and learn what was taking place around another famous bay.

QUESTIONS ON THE TEXT

1. What countries struggled for possession of the Atlantic coast?
2. Locate each of the settlements made by the English along the Atlantic coast.
3. When, where, and by whom was Jamestown settled? What were some of the things first done by the Virginia colonists? For what purpose did most of the colonists come to Virginia?
4. Give a sketch of the early career of Captain John Smith. What important service did Smith render the colony? Tell the story of Smith and Pocahontas.
5. Why did the colonists decide to return to England? What caused them to remain at Jamestown?
6. Give an account of the beginning of tobacco-growing in Virginia.
7. When and where did the first lawmaking body meet?
8. Give an account of the beginning of slavery in Virginia.
9. Where and when was Maryland first settled? Who was the real founder of Maryland, and what was his purpose in founding the colony?
10. Give an account of self-government in the Maryland colony; of religious freedom; of the quarrel between Maryland and Virginia.

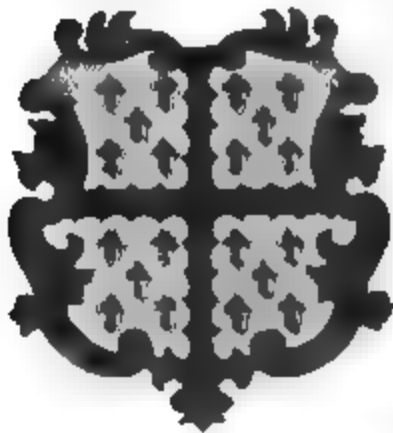
REVIEW AND READING REFERENCES

1. Dates: 1492, 1522, 1588.
2. Places: Genoa, Palos, St. Augustine.
3. Persons: Balboa, Magellan, De Soto, Cartier, Cabot, Drake, Raleigh, Virginia Dare.
4. Tell what you can about: the Line of Demarcation; the Seven Cities of Cibola; the Invincible Armada.
5. Topics: John Smith and the exploration of the Chesapeake: 2, 180-189. John Smith: 6, 34-46; also 7, 87-97. Life in Jamestown: 9, 37-40. Maryland: 9, 106-110. Baltimore: 33, 1-46.

VI

AROUND NEW YORK BAY: NEW YORK, NEW JERSEY

The Hollanders were traders and seafarers, and they found it hard to settle down into farmers, who alone can make permanent colonists. . . . The Dutch settlers took slowly and with reluctance to that all-important tool and weapon of the American pioneer, the ax, and chopped down very little timber indeed — *Theodore Roosevelt*



Henry Hudson's
coat of arms.

34. The Dutch Settle around New York Bay.

—The English had hardly begun their settlements around the Chesapeake Bay before the Dutch began to settle around New York Bay. In 1609 Henry Hudson, an Englishman in the service of the Dutch, entered this bay in his ship the *Half Moon*, and sailed up the magnificent river that bears his name. Hudson, like Columbus and many others, believed there was a short western route to India, and he thought that by following the course of the Hudson he would be able to reach the Pacific Ocean. He went up the river to the point where the city of Troy now stands, and there his boat ran aground. He failed, of course, to reach the Pacific by the Hudson, but his voyage up the river was of the greatest importance.¹

To understand how important this voyage was, you must know of something that happened not far from the place where the *Half Moon* ran into the mud, and that happened only a few weeks before. About the time Hudson was making his way

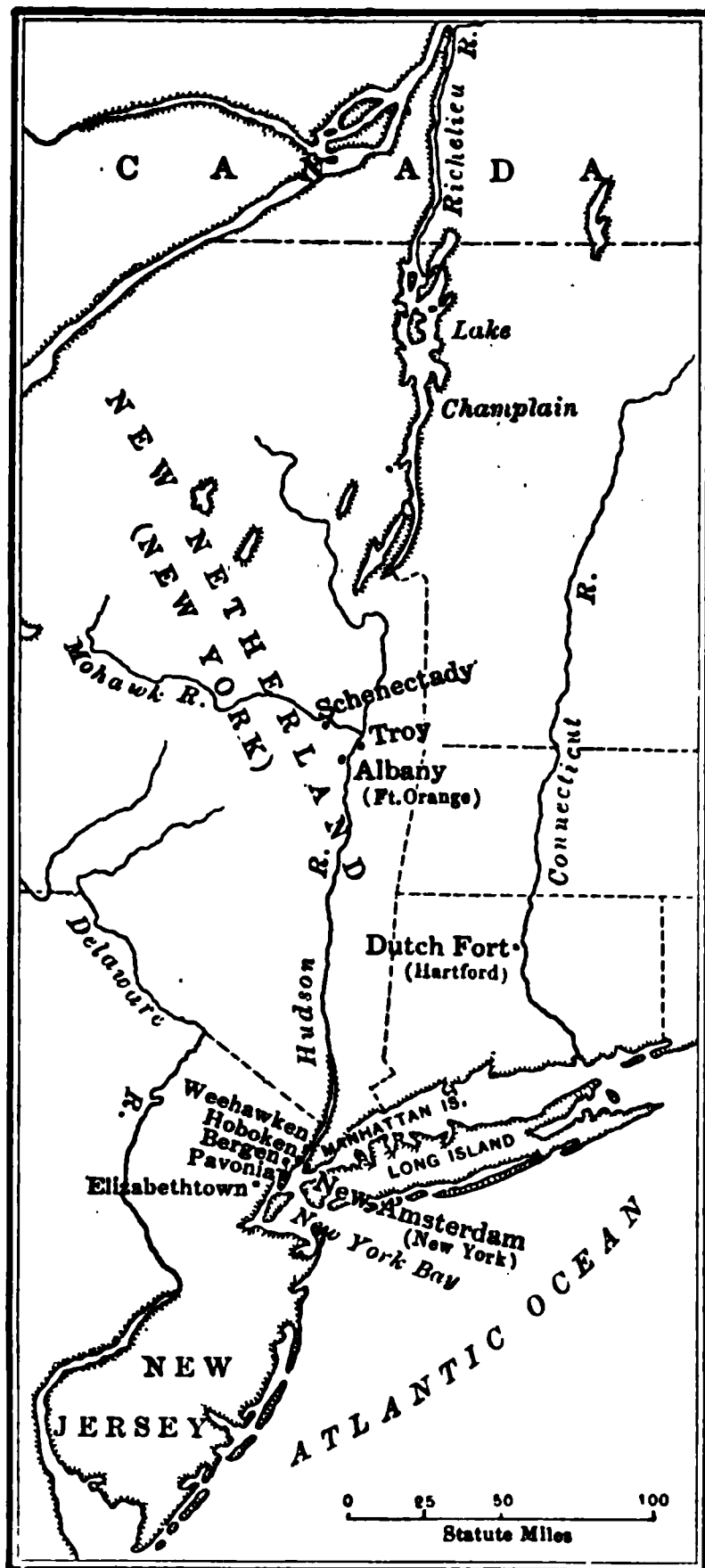
¹In 1619 Hudson entered Hudson Strait and Hudson Bay to find the long-sought Northwest Passage to the Pacific. On this voyage Hudson's crew mutinied, and he was bound and with eight others was set afloat. He was never seen again.



Champlain fighting the Iroquois.
From Champlain's book, published in 1613.

north up the Hudson River, Samuel Champlain, a French explorer, was coming south by the way of the Richelieu River. When the Frenchman with several companions came to the lake that now bears his name, he met a band of Iroquois Indians, and for some reason a skirmish began. Champlain quickly blazed away with his gun, and two poor savages dropped dead. That shot made bitter and lasting enemies of all the great Iroquois tribes that occupied northern New York. After Champlain's skirmish with the Indians, Frenchmen could no longer come down from Canada into New York to buy furs or to make settlements.

When Hudson appeared in northern New York and met these Iroquois Indians, he did not begin by fighting with them and shooting them down, as Champlain had done, but approached them in a peaceful manner and treated them kindly. This treatment seems to have touched the hearts of the Iroquois, for they became friendly with the Dutch and welcomed them to their country. So one of the important results of the voyage of the *Half Moon* up the Hudson was the winning of the New York Indians to the side of the Dutch.



Early settlements in New York and New Jersey.

son—Albany, Cohoes, Troy, Schenectady.

35. New Amsterdam.—At first the Dutch came to America only for the purpose of trading, but in 1626 they began to make permanent settlements. In that year a great trading company in Amsterdam, Holland, sent out Peter Minuit to act as the governor of a settlement to be made on Manhattan Island. Minuit bought the island from the Indians for twenty-four dollars' worth of beads and ribbons, and at once built a fort and began

Another important result of this voyage of Hudson was to cause Holland to begin settlements around New York Bay and along the Hudson River. Hudson told the people of Holland that this region was as fair a land as was ever trod by the foot of man, and he told them also of the great opportunity there was in the region for trading in furs. The Dutch were a great commercial people, and they made haste to establish fur-trading stations along the Hudson. In 1613 they began to build huts on Manhattan Island for the storage of furs. The next year a trading-station was built far up the Hudson, near the point where Albany now stands, and this fur-trading station was the beginning of that cluster of busy cities and towns that stand close to where the Mohawk flows into the Hud-

the work of settlement. The place was called New Amsterdam. Since it had one of the finest harbors in the world and was an excellent trading-station, New Amsterdam drew merchants from all parts of Europe and very soon became one of the busiest towns on the American coast.

Peter Minuit Directeur

Autograph of Peter Minuit.

36. Claims of the Dutch and the English.—The Dutch claimed all the coast from the mouth of the Connecticut River to the Delaware, and they gave to this region the name of New Netherland. But England also claimed this part of the coast on the ground that Cabot had discovered it (1497) and had taken possession of it in the name of England before the coming of the Dutch. The English did not at first push their claim,



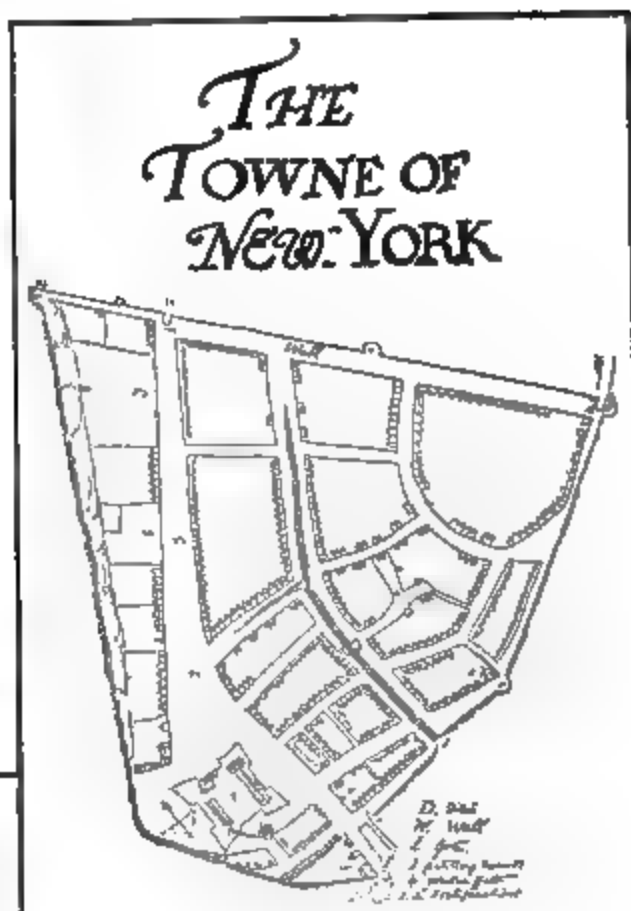
New Amsterdam between 1630 and 1640.

From a Dutch book. Thought to be the oldest picture of what is now New York.

but allowed the Dutch to go on with their work of settlement. They did not, however, allow them to settle in the valley of the Connecticut. There was at one time a Dutch fur-trading station

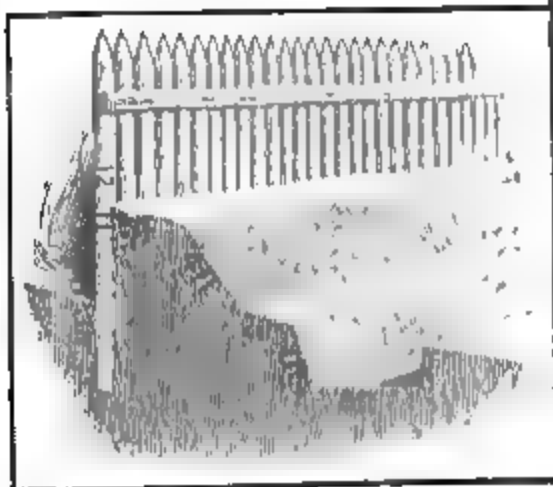


Wall Street to-day.



Old map of New York.

Showing the "wall" (now Wall Street), as the upper boundary. The wall was built by the Dutch as a means of defense against their New England neighbors.



Plan of original wall on Wall Street.

on the Connecticut River, near the place where Hartford now stands, but it was broken up by the English settlers. So the colony of New Netherland was bounded by the Hudson and the Delaware, and consisted of what is now New Jersey and eastern New York.

37. The Patroons.—The Dutch people were glad to carry on trade in New Netherland, but they did not care to go there to live. They were happy in their peaceful homes in Holland, and the great forests and the wild Indians of America had few charms for them. In order to attract settlers the trading company that owned New Netherland established (in 1629) the *patroon* system. It provided that any member of the company

who would bring over fifty settlers should have an immense estate on the banks of the Hudson. This estate was to be sixteen miles long if on one side of the river and eight miles long if on both sides. It was to extend as far back as the "situation of the owner would permit." The patroon (the owner) was to be the lord of the land and the ruler of the people on it. The patroon was to appoint the officers of any city or town that might spring up on the estate. Under the patroon system the people had no voice whatever in matters of government. The patroon was a petty king, and the people on his estate were little better than slaves. The patroon system flourished for a while, and under its workings many settlers were brought to New Netherland. But it was a bad system, nevertheless, for it did not give the people the liberty they had been accustomed to enjoy in Holland.

38. New Netherland Surrendered to the English.—The Dutch had hardly settled their colony before England began to disturb them. The more the English saw of the Hudson country, the better they liked it, and the more they desired to have it as their own. So in 1664, Charles II, the King of England, did what was almost sure to be done sooner or later: he took New Netherland away from the Dutch, paying no attention whatever to their claims. He sent over a fleet of four vessels to take possession of the colony in the name of his brother James, Duke of York. Peter Stuyvesant, the governor, fumed and stamped his wooden leg when he heard that the fleet was approaching New Amsterdam, and when the commander of the fleet sent him a letter demanding the surrender of the town, he tore the letter to bits and prepared to fight. But it was of no use for the old man to storm and fret. The English were too strong for him. The Dutch flag was hauled down, the English colors were run up, and all New Netherland passed under the control of England. Since this surrender gave the English full command of the sea-coast from Nova Scotia to Florida, the year 1664 is one of the most important in our history.

The Dutch colony now gradually became an English colony. English names quite generally took the place of Dutch names.

For example, the town of New Amsterdam was called New York, and the colony of New Netherland also was called New



Peter Stuyvesant.

Born in Holland, in 1592; died at New York, in 1672.

York. English officers, after the surrender of 1664, took the place of Dutch officers, English laws were obeyed instead of Dutch laws, and the English language crowded out the Dutch language. These changes were not hard to make, because, in the first place, the English and the Dutch were first cousins, and, in the second place, the Dutch settlers did not like the way they were governed under the patroon system, and they were glad to have the English take possession, for they hoped that under English laws they would enjoy

greater freedom. The friendship which had existed between the Dutch and Indians the English carefully secured for themselves, for they saw how important it would be to have the Iroquois on their side if the French should attempt to push down from Canada into New York.

39. New Jersey.—When New Netherland passed into the hands of the English, it included both New York and New Jersey; but the Duke of York at once gave the part that lies between the Hudson and the Delaware, and which is now the State of New Jersey, to his good friends Sir George Carteret and Lord Berkeley. These gentlemen were to own and rule New Jersey as proprietors, much as Maryland was owned and ruled by the Calverts. Philip Carteret, a distant relative of Sir George, came over in 1665 as governor, and made Elizabeth-town the capital of the colony. This town, however, was not the first settlement that was made in New Jersey, for the Dutch had already laid the foundation for Hoboken and had built the village of Bergen, now a part of Jersey City. In 1666 thirty families came from Connecticut and, settling on the Passaic River, laid the foundations of Newark.

The proprietors of New Jersey had the power to rule pretty much as they pleased, but they treated the settlers well, and, following the example of the proprietors of Maryland, gave the people the right to make laws for themselves. The first law-making body met at Elizabethtown in 1668. New Jersey grew rapidly under English rule, and the people fared well. It is said that in 1675 there was not a single poor person in the whole colony of New Jersey.

QUESTIONS ON THE TEXT

1. Give an account of the voyage of Hudson up the Hudson River. What caused the Iroquois Indians and the French to be enemies? What was the result of this quarrel?
2. What was the chief purpose of the Dutch in coming to the Hudson region? Give an account of the settlement of New Amsterdam.
3. What claims were made by the Dutch and by the English?
4. What was the patroon system?
5. Give an account of the surrender of New Netherland to the English. What changes took place under the English rule?
6. Sketch the early history of New Jersey.

REVIEW AND READING REFERENCES

1. Dates: 1522, 1588, 1607.
2. Places: Palos, San Salvador, St. Augustine, Jamestown.
3. Persons: Americus Vesputius, Cartier, Cabot, Drake, Raleigh, John Smith, George Calvert.
4. Tell what you can about: the Seven Cities of Cibola; the Line of Demarcation; the Invincible Armada; the Jamestown colony; the founding of Maryland.
5. Topics: Henry Hudson: 4, 142-153. Hudson and the discovery of the Hudson River: 2, 190-197. Peter Stuyvesant: 6, 58-67. New Jersey in 1675: 3, 62-65. The conquest of New Netherland: 9, 101-105. New Jersey: 9, 129-131; also 7, 146-147. Albany: 32, 1-37. New York City: 32, 169-211.

VII

AROUND MASSACHUSETTS BAY AND ALONG THE PISCATAQUA RIVER: MASSACHUSETTS, NEW HAMPSHIRE

Men they were who could not bend :
Blest Pilgrims, surely: as they took for guide
A will by sovereign Conscience sanctified.

William Wordsworth.

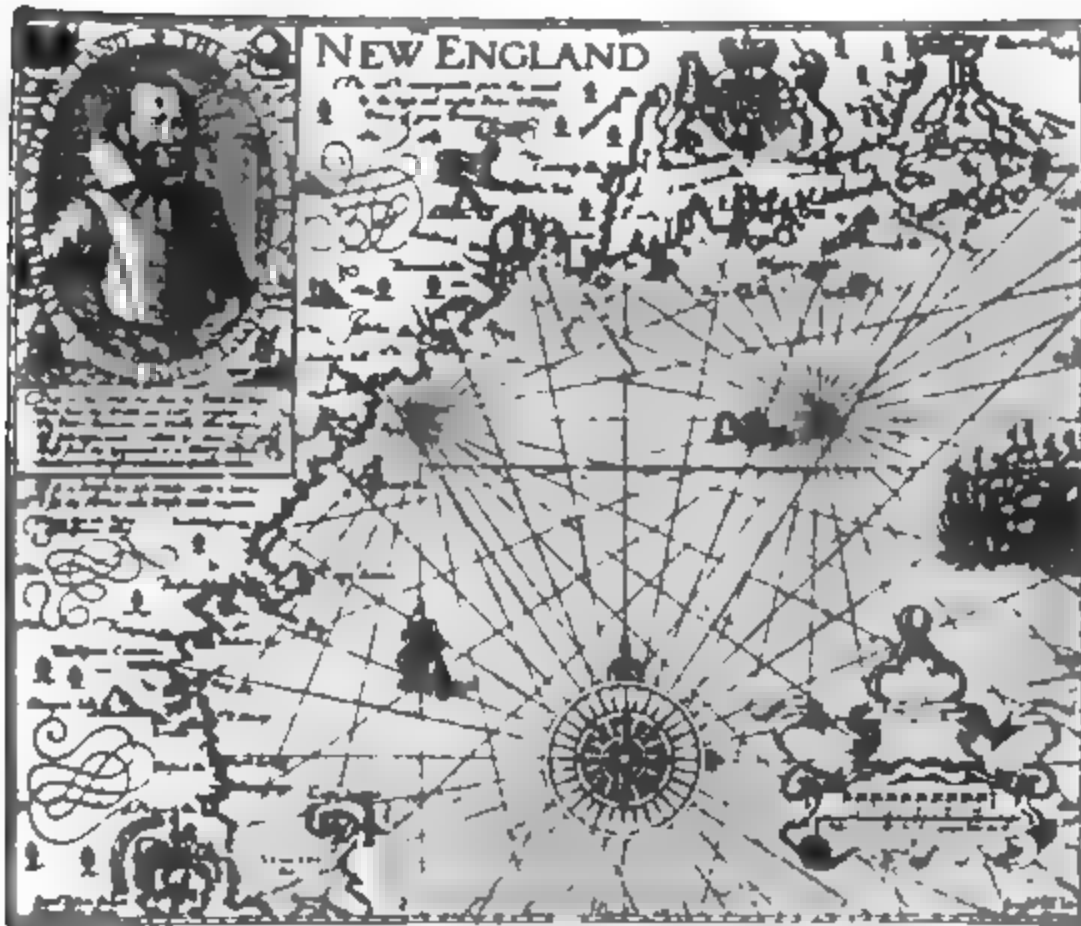


The Mayflower.

40. The Pilgrims.—Just about the time Henry Hudson, with his crew of Dutchmen, was sailing (in 1609) up the Hudson River in the *Half Moon*, a little band of Englishmen from the village of Scrooby, in Nottinghamshire, was slowly making its way in a canal-boat to the city of Leyden, Hol-

land. These pilgrims in a foreign land had left their pleasant homes because they wanted to worship God in their own way, and in England they were not allowed to do this. They wanted the privilege of choosing their own pastor and of conducting the services of their church in a plain, simple manner. They had asked the king (James I) to grant them freedom in matters of worship, but the king told them that they would have to attend the Church of England and would have to obey the rules of that church, and he gave them to understand that if they disobeyed these rules he would drive them out of his kingdom. It was not necessary to drive them out, for they left England of their own free will.

The Pilgrims—as this roving body of church folk is called—settled down in Leyden, where they wished, and for a while they led a happy life. Years passed they found that they



A map of New England made by Captain John Smith.

were ceasing to be Englishmen. They were learning to follow Dutch customs, their children were speaking the Dutch language, and their daughters were marrying Dutchmen and were being called by the Dutch names of their husbands. It was plain that if they remained in Holland they would become Dutch in all things. But they still loved England, and their thoughts began to turn to the wilds of America as a place where they might enjoy religious freedom and where they might live and die as Englishmen. About 1617 they began to make plans for leaving Holland, and in July, 1620, they bade the country farewell and set out for America.

41. The Plymouth Colony.—They stopped on the way at Southampton, in England, where they prepared more fully for the long voyage that was before them. On September 16 they embarked on the *Mayflower* and spread sail for America. On board were about a hundred souls. The leaders of the colony were Brewster, the preacher, Bradford, the ruler, and

Miles Standish, the fighter. After a voyage of nine weeks the low, sandy shores of Cape Cod came in sight, and on the 12th of November the *Mayflower* entered what is now Provincetown harbor. But this was not a suitable place for a settlement, and men were sent out in a light boat or shallop to look for a better place. A spot where the town of Plymouth, Massachusetts, now stands was chosen, and here the Pilgrims from the *Mayflower* went ashore on the 26th of December, 1620, and began to lay the foundation of the Plymouth colony and of *New England*.¹

The landing was made in the dead of winter, and the sufferings of the Pilgrims were almost as terrible as were the sufferings of the Jamestown colonists. In a few months more than half the company had perished. Among the dead was John Carver, the first governor of the colony. William Bradford, who was at once chosen in Carver's place, survived the suffering of the first winter and lived to serve as governor for twenty-one years. In spite of the hardships that faced them, the survivors remained true to the work that lay before them—the work of founding a colony where they could worship God in the way their consciences told them to worship Him. When the *Mayflower* sailed for England in the spring, not a Pilgrim returned with her.

Of course the Pilgrims, like all other colonists, had to deal with the Indians, and they were wise enough to deal with them in the right way. Massasoit, the chief of a neighboring tribe, visited the colony in a friendly spirit, and a treaty of peace was made with him. It was agreed that the red men and white men should not harm one another, and that if harm was done, the offender, whether he was a white man or an Indian, should be punished. This agreement was faithfully kept for nearly fifty years. Some time after this treaty was made there was an Indian plot to kill all the Pilgrims, but before the blow was struck Massasoit told Bradford of the plot. Miles Standish, with eight men, was sent against the Indians. There was a desperate hand-to-hand fight, in which Standish proved himself a valiant soldier,

¹ The name New England had been given to this part of the coast by Captain John Smith, who visited it on one of his voyages.

and punished the Indians so severely that they gave no further trouble.

The Pilgrims had no charter to guide them in matters of government as the colonists of Virginia and Maryland had. So they found it necessary to provide a government for themselves, a thing which they were only too glad to do. While on board the *Mayflower* they had entered into a "compact" or agreement by which every person solemnly agreed to obey the laws that should be made when on shore.

The first government was in the form of a town-meeting where every freeman had a vote and where all the public business was attended to. At first the only town was Plymouth, and here for several years all the freemen of the colony came together in town-meeting and transacted all the business of government. But new settlements were made and new towns were formed. In 1643 there were in the colony of



Pot and platter of
Miles Standish.

Plymouth the towns of Plymouth, Duxbury, Scituate, Taunton, Sandwich, Yarmouth, Barnstable, Marshfield, and Rehoboth.

Since all the freemen of these towns could not conveniently come together at Plymouth, the outlying towns sent men to represent them in a General Court that met at Plymouth. This General Court attended to the affairs that concerned the whole colony, while each town attended to the affairs that concerned only itself. Thus the people of Plymouth, from the beginning, enjoyed the blessings of self-government as well as of religious freedom.

42. The Massachusetts Bay Colony.—The colony at Plymouth had no sooner begun to prosper than a sister colony began to arise not many miles away on the bay shore at the north. This was the Massachusetts Bay Colony, which had its beginnings at Salem in 1628. In that year John Endicott received from the English government a grant of land extending from a line three miles south of the Charles River to one three miles north of the Merrimac River. In the westerly direction the grant extended straight across the continent from the Atlantic Ocean to the

Pacific Ocean. In 1628-29 several hundred colonists settled at Salem, with Endicott as their governor.

In 1629 John Winthrop was chosen governor of the colony. Winthrop was one of the strongest characters of early colonial history and is justly regarded as the founder of New England. He belonged to a respectable and well-to-do family and was



Governor John Winthrop.

Born at Groton, England, in 1587; died at Boston, in 1649.

highly educated. He was deeply religious, and his conscience held him firm in the path of duty. He was extremely fond of shooting wild fowl, but when it came into his mind that this sport was sinful, he "covenanted with the Lord" to shoot no more. He could doubtless have won distinction and honor in England, but his religion and his conscience bade him cast his lot with the Massachusetts colonists.

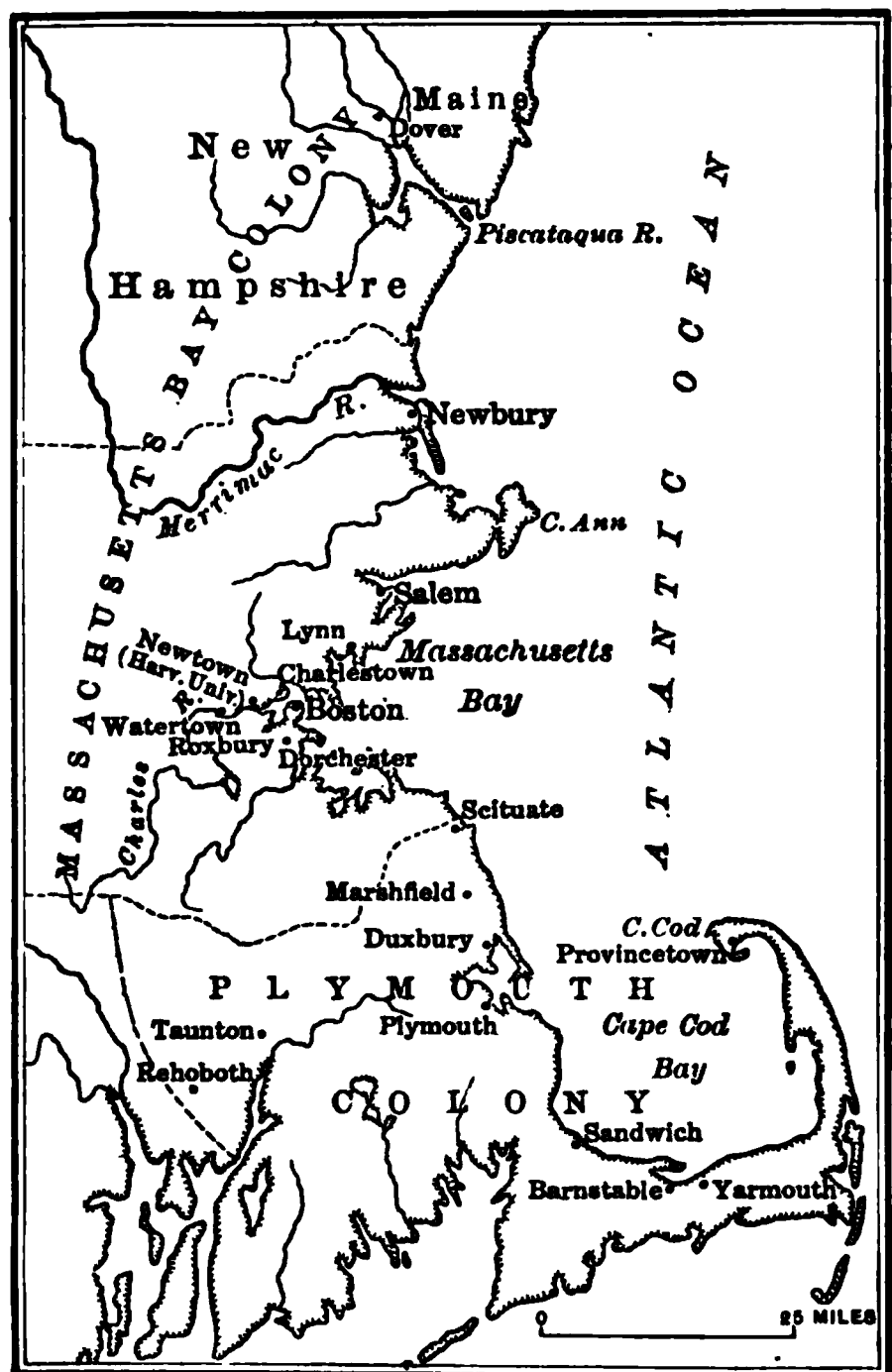
Winthrop came to America in 1630, and under his leadership Englishmen began to come over to Massachusetts faster than ever before. In ten years twenty thousand home-seekers sailed into the harbors of Massachusetts Bay. Towns sprang up as if by magic. Boston, Charlestown, Dorchester, Watertown, Roxbury, Mystic, and Lynn were all founded within two years after the coming of Winthrop.

Who were these Englishmen who came over in such great numbers, and why did they leave their native land? They were the Puritans, a class of people who were members of the Church of England, but who did not like the way in which the services of that church were conducted. They objected to many of the forms and ceremonies, and they also longed for

greater freedom in religious matters. They desired a plain, simple form of worship and a pure doctrine, and because they wished to reform the church and purify it they were called Puritans. In matters of religion they were in many respects like the Pilgrims, but the Puritans wished to remain within the Church of England and bring about the desired reforms, whereas the Pilgrims believed in separating themselves entirely from the church.

At the time Winthrop came to America, the king, Charles I, was acting in a manner that was very displeasing to his subjects.

In the first place, he was taxing the people in a way they did not like. Englishmen felt that they ought to pay only such taxes as their representatives in Parliament should agree upon, while the king was compelling his subjects to pay taxes which Parliament had not ordered to be paid. Moreover, Charles I, like his father (James I) before him, was trying to make everybody attend the Church of England. The Puritans were especially disliked by the king, and many of them suffered at his hands. Some of them were shut up in prison on account of their religious convictions. It was because the Puritans grew tired of this treatment that many of them sought refuge in the forests of New England.



Settlements around Massachusetts Bay.

The Puritans developed a form of government like the one

that had been developed at Plymouth. Each town had its own town-meeting, at which the freemen, in a body, attended to local affairs. For the government of the whole colony, there was a General Court that met at Boston. This court, like the General Court of the Plymouth colony, was composed of representatives of the towns. When making laws the General Court was not supposed to go contrary to the laws of England, but, as a matter of fact, in its early days it paid very little attention to the laws of the mother country. At the time the Puritans in America were building up their government, the Puritans in England were giving the king so much trouble that he had no time to look after his colony abroad. So the General Court was free to act in the way it thought best.

Everything favored the Puritans in the development of their colony. They did not have to pass through a period of suffering. In the early days when they found themselves in trouble they could call on their neighbors, the Pilgrims, to help them. Once they needed the services of a physician, and one was sent up promptly from Plymouth. At another time the services of a good soldier were needed, and Captain Standish came forward and fought as bravely for the Puritans as he always fought for the Pilgrims. Nature also was kind to the Puritans. The region about them was full of fur-bearing animals, and there was a profitable trade in furs; the forests yielded excellent timber for ships, and the rivers and bays teemed with fish.

The Puritans made good use of their opportunities, and flourished as no colonists before them had flourished. They began a trade with Europe and the West Indies. They built themselves comfortable homes and neat and substantial churches. Very early they began to look after the education of their children. In 1635 the Boston Latin School was opened, and the next year Harvard College was founded.

43. The Colony of New Hampshire.—While the Puritans were building up the colony of Massachusetts Bay, fishermen on the Piscataqua River were making settlements which were the beginnings of the colony of New Hampshire. Fishing was a very important occupation in the early days of New England,



The Puritan.

Statue by Augustus Saint-Gaudens.

and fishing-stations existed along the New England coast, especially along the coast of Maine, even before the coming of the Pilgrims.

The first settlement of the New Hampshire colony was made at Dover in 1623, under a charter held by John Mason and Sir

Ferdinando Gorges. These two men were made proprietors of nearly all the land that is now included in the three States of Maine, New Hampshire, and Vermont. In 1629 they divided their territory, Gorges taking Maine for his share and Mason taking New Hampshire. Both Maine and New Hampshire were at times claimed and held by Massachusetts. In 1691 New Hampshire was separated from Massachusetts and was made a colony with a government of its own, although even after 1691 the two colonies sometimes had the same governor. In the same year Maine was given to Massachusetts and was known as the District of Maine. It remained a part of Massachusetts until it became a State.

QUESTIONS ON THE TEXT

1. Why did the Pilgrims leave England? Why were the Pilgrims not satisfied with Holland?
2. Give an account of the voyage of the *Mayflower*. Describe the sufferings of the Plymouth colonists and give an account of their dealings with the Indians. What system of government was established in Plymouth?
3. Give an account of the beginning of the Massachusetts Bay Colony. Sketch the life and services of John Winthrop. Who were the Puritans? In what respect did the Puritans differ from the Pilgrims? Why did the Puritans leave England? What system of government was established by the Puritans? What circumstances favored the growth of the Massachusetts Bay Colony?
4. Give an account of the beginning of the colony of New Hampshire. What was the early history of Maine?

REVIEW AND READING REFERENCES

1. Dates: 1522, 1588, 1607, 1609, 1664.
2. Places: San Salvador, St. Augustine, Jamestown, New Amsterdam.
3. Persons: Cartier, Cabot, Drake, Virginia Dare, John Smith, George Calvert, Henry Hudson, Peter Stuyvesant.
4. Tell what you can about: the Line of Demarcation; the Invincible Armada; the Jamestown colony; the founding of Maryland; the patroons.
5. Topics: The *Mayflower*: 7, 105-113. John Eliot and the Indians: 8, 14-20. Salem witches: 7, 170-173. The king and the Puritans: 3, 37-39. Maine and New Hampshire settlements: 9, 82-83. Boston: 31, 167-186. Salem: 31, 121-160. Plymouth: 31, 299-344.

VIII

ALONG THE CONNECTICUT RIVER AND AROUND THE NARRAGANSETT BAY: CONNECTICUT, RHODE ISLAND

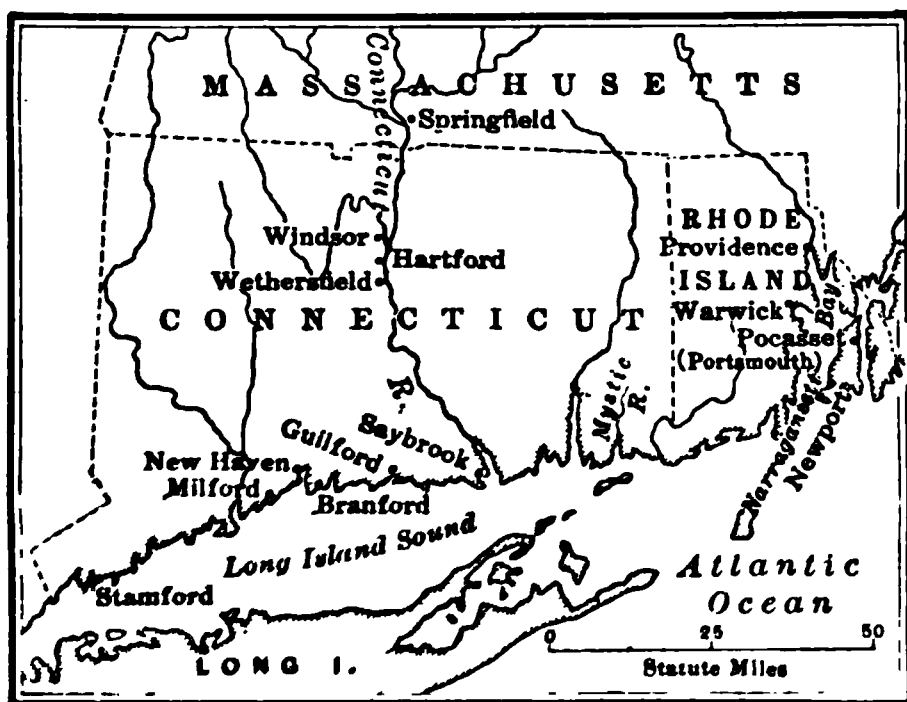
The foundation of authority is laid in the free consent of the people.—*Thomas Hooker.*

44. Connecticut.—Between 1630 and 1640 the Puritans came over so fast that all the best places along the coast of Massachusetts Bay were soon occupied. But back toward the west there was a whole continent lying idle and inviting settlers to come. So the Puritan colonists, when choosing a home, soon began to look westward. The first place to attract their attention was the valley of the Connecticut River. This river flowed through a charming and fertile region; on its shores were plenty of otters and beavers; in the stream were the finest kinds of fish. The Connecticut valley, therefore, was a good place for farming, for fur-trading, and for fishing, the three occupations upon which American colonists everywhere relied for a living.

We have learned (p. 41) how the Dutch began a fur trade in the Connecticut valley and how they were driven away by the English. In 1634 some persons from Watertown (near Boston) built a few huts on the Connecticut at Wethersfield. These huts were the beginnings of the State of Connecticut. In 1635 some men from Dorchester settled at Windsor. In 1636 Thomas Hooker,¹ the pastor of the church at Newton (now Cambridge), moved with his entire congregation to the banks of the Connecticut and founded the city of Hartford.

¹ Born at Markfield, Leicestershire, England, about 1586; died at Hartford, Connecticut, 1647.

Hooker did not like the way the Puritans acted in matters of government. He thought religious affairs and state affairs in the Massachusetts Bay Colony were bound too closely together. He thought also that more people ought to be allowed to vote than were allowed that privilege in the Puritan colony. Besides, was not the rich valley of the Connecticut a better place for homes than the rocky and barren hills around Boston? Hooker and his followers took their wives and children with



Connecticut and Rhode Island.

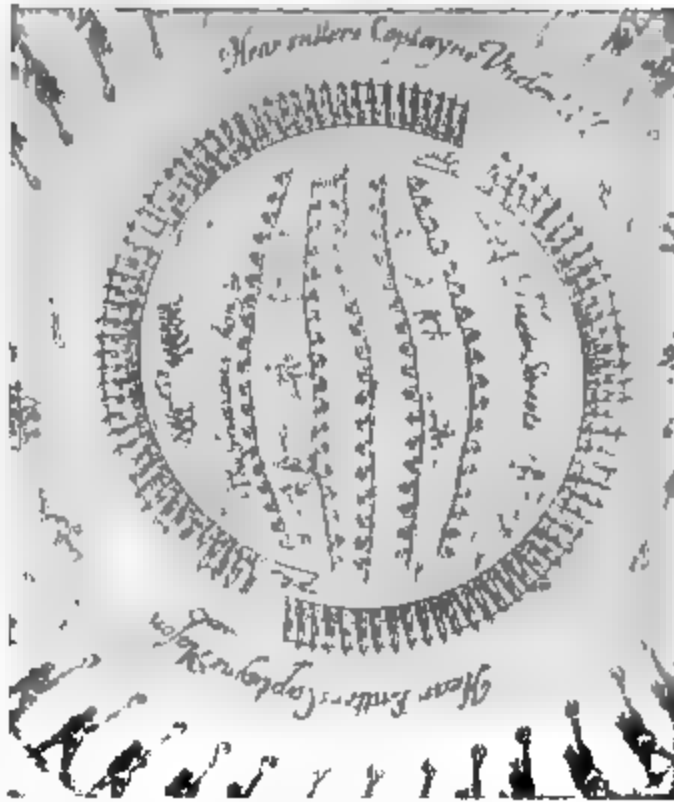
them. They carried their household goods along and drove their cattle before them. As they moved overland through the roadless forests of Massachusetts, they took the first step in that great Westward Movement which continued for more than two hundred years and which did not come

to an end until the far-off Pacific was reached.

45. Trouble with the Indians; the Pequot War.—The Connecticut settlers soon began to have trouble with the Indians. The poor savages felt that the white man was driving them from their hunting-grounds. The colonists, it is true, always bought their lands from the Indians, but when an Indian sold a piece of land he felt that he still had the right to hunt upon it. while the white man, when he bought a piece of land, felt that he had a right to put a fence around it and keep the Indians off. So when the Indians saw that they were losing their hunting-grounds, they began to regard the Englishmen as their enemies.

The tribe that gave the most trouble was the Pequots. Warriors of this tribe would lurk around the settlements, and when they found a white man working alone in the field or hunting alone in the woods, would pounce on him and

times at night they would attack a family and kill the men and carry the women and children away and keep them in slavery. The settlers endured this as long as they could, and then they put an end to it. In 1637 ninety Connecticut colonists were sent against the Pequot stronghold at the mouth of the Mystic River. The fort was set on fire, and those who did not perish in the flames were shot. Six hundred warriors



Plan of a Pequot fort.

were slain. The Pequot tribe was wholly destroyed, and for forty years afterward New England was free from Indian wars.

46. The First Written Constitution.—With the Indians out of the way, the settlers along the Connecticut could give attention to the affairs of peace. It quickly became necessary to have a government for the towns that were springing up, and in 1639 the freemen of Wethersfield, Windsor, and Hartford met at Hartford and drew up a plan by which the young colony should be governed. The plan provided for a government almost precisely like that which the settlers left behind them in Massachusetts (p. 52). So far as its form is concerned, then, there was nothing remarkable about the government set up by the Connecticut colonists. Yet the plan which the freemen of these three little towns drew up was nevertheless a most remarkable one, for it was the first *written constitution*. Never before in the history of the world had the people who were to be governed planned their own government and at the same time written out the plan in plain black and white.

47. New Haven.—While the settlers of the river towns were planning for the government of the Connecticut colony, a new

colony was forming on the north shore of Long Island Sound. In 1638 a company of Puritans led by John Davenport, a preacher, and Theophilus Eaton, a merchant, settled at New Haven. Davenport and his followers believed that men ought to be governed by the words of the Bible, and they planned for a government under which rulers should look to the Holy Book for guidance. So they set up a "Bible Commonwealth," in which only church-members could have a voice, and they made it very difficult for any one to become a church-member. The new colony prospered, and settlements rapidly sprang up in the neighborhood of New Haven. Within a few years the towns of Milford, Guilford, Stamford, and Branford were settled and united to the colony of New Haven.

But the "Bible Commonwealth" did not have a very long life. In 1662 Charles II gave out a charter which united New Haven to the Connecticut colony—the colony that consisted of the river towns. This charter stated the boundaries that Connecticut was to have, and provided that the colony was to extend westward to the Pacific Ocean, just as if the Dutch on the Hudson had no right to be there. In matters of government the charter of 1662 allowed the colony to follow the plan drawn up by the three towns in 1639, that is, it allowed the colony to govern itself.

Providence 25 March 1671

*Yo^r Fej^{er} & Servant
Roger Williams*

Autograph of Roger Williams.

48. Rhode Island and Providence Plantations.—While Hooker was planting his colony on the banks of the Connecticut River, another offshoot of Massachusetts was taking root along the shores of Narragansett Bay. In 1636 Roger Williams,¹ a

¹ Born in Wales, about 1600; died in Rhode Isl.

bright young preacher, who had been driven from Massachusetts on account of his religious ideas, made his way to the spot where the city of Providence now stands, and began a settlement which was the beginning of the colony of Rhode Island.

Williams desired that his settlement should be a shelter for all who, like himself, were persecuted on account of religious belief. In Maryland, it will be remembered, Christians of whatever name were welcome (p. 36), but Jews and pagans were not welcome. In Providence, Jews and pagans, men of any faith, men of no faith—all were welcome. Williams wanted church matters to be kept strictly separate from government matters. He and the Puritans had quarreled because the Massachusetts leaders wanted the church to rule in all things, both in spiritual and in worldly affairs. In his Rhode Island settlement Williams intended that the state should be independent of the church and that the church should be independent of the state.



Roger Williams's church at Salem, Massachusetts.

That the government should have nothing to do with the church and that the church should have nothing to do with the government was a new and strange doctrine which was slowly to gain ground as time went on. Williams found followers, and his colony grew. Among those who sought the religious freedom which was to be found only in the Rhode Island colony were Mrs. Anne Hutchinson and her followers. This gifted and earnest woman had been banished from Massachusetts for preaching new religious doctrines. She settled (in 1638) with her colonists in Rhode Island, and founded the towns of Pocas-

set (Portsmouth) and Newport. Her settlement, however, was separate and distinct from the one made by Williams. In 1643 the town of Warwick, on the mainland, was founded by Samuel Gorton, who also had been driven from Massachusetts. Twenty years later all these settlements were brought together and united into a single colony with the name of "The Rhode Island and Providence Plantations." The charter which brought



Old Narragansett Church.

about this union was quite like the charter which, a year before, Charles II gave to the Connecticut colony. It gave the people of Rhode Island the right to elect their own officers and make their own laws.

49. The New England Confederation.—In 1643 four colonies, Plymouth, Massachusetts Bay, New Haven,

and Connecticut, entered into a union known as the New England Confederation. Rhode Island did not join this union because the other colonies did not care to unite with her. New Hampshire at the time was a part of Massachusetts. The purpose of the union was to protect the colonies against the French on the St. Lawrence, against the Dutch on the Hudson, and against the Indians everywhere. Each colony was represented by two commissioners. The union fulfilled the purpose for which it was formed, and was dissolved in 1684. It lasted long enough to show the colonies the great benefit of union, and the lesson it taught was never forgotten. In this New England Confederation can be seen the beginnings of the great Union under which we now live.

You have now learned how the Pilgrims and Puritans laid the foundations of New England. You have seen that by the middle of the seventeenth century the colonies of Plymouth, Massachusetts Bay, Connecticut, New Haven, and Rhode Island were all firmly planted on the coasts of New England.

QUESTIONS ON THE TEXT

1. What attractions did the Connecticut valley have for colonists? What were the first settlements in the Connecticut valley? Why did Hooker leave Massachusetts?

2. What were the grievances of the Indians? Give an account of the Pequot War.

3. Give an account of the first written constitution.

4. When and by whom was New Haven settled? Why was New Haven called the "Bible Commonwealth"?

5. Who was Roger Williams? What were his purposes in founding a new colony? Who was Anne Hutchinson? Give an account of the early settlement of Rhode Island.

6. Describe the New England Confederation.

REVIEW AND READING REFERENCES

1. Dates: 1522, 1588, 1607, 1609, 1620, 1664.

2. Places: St. Augustine, Jamestown, New Amsterdam, Plymouth.

3. Persons: Cabot, Drake, John Smith, George Calvert, Henry Hudson, Peter Stuyvesant, John Winthrop.

4. Tell what you can about: the Invincible Armada; the Jamestown colony; the founding of Maryland; the patroons; the Pilgrims; the Plymouth colony; the Puritans.

5. Topics: The Pequot War: 11, 32-43. The King-killers: 7, 136-138. Roger Williams: 8, 9-16; also 3, 52-54. Settlement of Connecticut and Rhode Island: 9, 89-95. Hartford: 31, 507-552. New Haven: 31, 553-586. Providence: 31, 475-506.

IX

ALONG THE DELAWARE BAY AND THE DELAWARE RIVER: PENNSYLVANIA, DELAWARE

Penn appears in American history as the wise founder of a State, the prudent and just magistrate, the liberal-minded lawgiver and ruler.—*Henry Cabot Lodge*

50. Delaware Claimed by the Dutch.—Our story has now brought us to the region of the Delaware Bay and the Delaware River. The strip of land on the west side of Delaware Bay, now known as the State of Delaware, was claimed and fought for by the Dutch, by the Swedes, and by the English. In 1609 Henry Hudson, in his search for a short route to India, entered the Delaware Bay, hoping that its waters might bear him on to the Pacific. But a sail of a few hours brought his vessel to marshes and mud-banks, and Hudson had to turn back, just as, a few months later, he had to turn back when he ran aground near Troy (p. 38). It was this trip of Hudson's up the Delaware Bay that led the Dutch to claim the entire Delaware region.

51. Delaware Settled by the Swedes.—But the Dutch were not allowed to hold the Delaware country in peace. In the early part of the seventeenth century Sweden, under the leadership of the great Gustavus Adolphus, began to hold up her head among the nations of Europe, and, like other wide-awake countries, began to plant colonies in America. In 1638 a company of Swedes, led by Peter Minuit—whom we have already seen in the service of the Dutch (p. 40)—built a fort on the Delaware near the spot where the city of Wilmington now stands and began a brisk trade in furs. The Swedes bought lands of the Indians and in a few years had several flourishing settlements along the Delaware. For a while it seemed as if there would be in America a New Sweden as well as a New England, a New France, and a New Spain. But tro



The old Swedes' church at Wilmington, Delaware

Sweden. The Dutch looked upon the Swedes as intruders and trespassers, and in 1655 Governor Stuyvesant of New Netherland, with six hundred men, sailed into the bay, and after a bloodless battle captured the Swedish settlement and compelled the settlers to acknowledge the Dutch as their masters.

We have seen how the Dutch in their turn were soon compelled (in 1664) to acknowledge the English as their masters (p. 43). When the Dutch turned over their American possessions to the English, the Swedish settlements were included in the transfer, and what is now the State of Delaware fell into the hands of the Duke of York, where it remained for a few years and was then sold to William Penn.

52. William Penn.—William Penn is one of the most interesting characters in American history. He was the son of a great English naval commander, and the pathway to riches and honor was open to him. But Penn, at an early age, showed that he cared for something more important than riches and honor. While a young man at college he fell under the influence of the Quakers, or the Society of Friends. The Quakers believed that man has within himself an "inward light" which can guide

him to all religious truth and which can save his soul. If this inward light, they said, is to shine in on the soul, there must be no sermons or formal services; the worshiper must sit still and be quiet and listen for the voice of God. Such a doctrine natu-



William Penn.

Born at London, in 1644, died in England, in 1718.

rally led to a quiet, simple, and peaceful life. The Quakers were opposed to music; they did not indulge in hunting or in gambling; they wore the plainest kind of clothes; and they were, above all things, opposed to war.

The teachings of the Quakers took such firm hold upon the mind and heart of Penn that he soon came to regard his religion as of more value to him than life itself. Admiral Penn,

his father, tried hard to persuade his son to give up his Quaker notions, but his efforts were in vain. Once the young Quaker was thrown into prison for writing a book without a license to do so. He was told that if he did not give up his religion he would remain a prisoner for life. He was not in the least frightened by the threat. "My prison," he said, "shall be my grave before I will budge a jot." When Admiral Penn heard of this firmness, he forgave his son, paid his fine, and the young man went free.

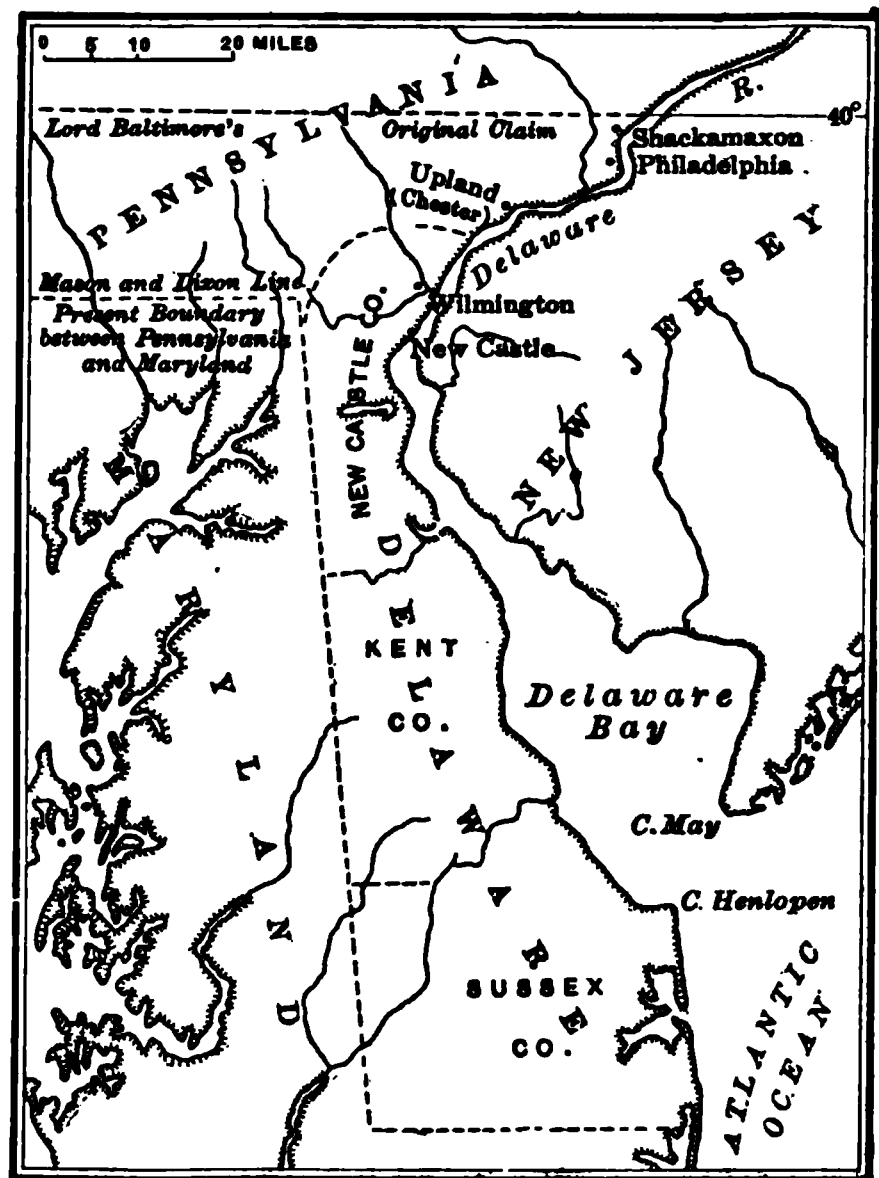
53. Pennsylvania.—When Admiral Penn died he left William a great inheritance. A part of the estate was a claim against King Charles II for a debt of £16,000. This debt the king paid in 1681 by granting to William Penn a tract of land extending westward from the Delaware River and containing about 48,000 square miles of territory,¹ a domain almost as

¹ *Mason and Dixon's Line*. There arose between Penn and the proprietor of Maryland a dispute as to the true boundary line between

large as England itself. The province was given the appropriate name of Pennsylvania—Penn's Woodland. Penn was made the lord and proprietor of Pennsylvania, just as Calvert was made the lord and proprietor of Maryland.

Penn at once began to plan for the development of his vast possessions on the Delaware. He sent his cousin William Markham to Pennsylvania to act as governor until he himself should arrive. To the Swedish and Dutch settlers already on his lands he sent a letter containing these encouraging words: "You shall be governed by laws of your own making and live a free and, if you will, a sober and industrious people. I shall not usurp the right of any or oppress his person. Whatever sober and free men can reasonably desire for the security and improvement of their own happiness I shall heartily comply with." Markham landed at Upland (now Chester) and took possession of the region in the name of the new proprietor.

In 1682 Penn in person sailed to his province with a hundred colonists, most of whom were Quakers. Upon reaching Chester he called together an assembly of lawmakers chosen by the people. The proprietor and the Assembly, working together, at



Delaware River and Delaware Bay.

Pennsylvania and Maryland. The dispute was finally settled by two surveyors named Mason and Dixon, who established (1763-67) the present line which separates Maryland from Delaware and Pennsylvania. This "Mason and Dixon's Line" in later times became famous as a part of the dividing line between the slave and free States.

once enacted some very important measures. The three lower counties on the Delaware were joined to Pennsylvania. Penn wanted to be master of the coast clear to the mouth of the bay,



The oldest Quaker meeting-house in America.
Situated near Easton, Maryland. Built in 1684. William Penn preached in it.

and for this reason he bought Delaware from the Duke of York. Delaware remained a part of Pennsylvania until it set up a government of its own and became a State in 1776.¹ The Assembly also agreed to the "Great Law" which had been drawn up in England by Penn's own wise and loving hand. The Great Law provided that the people should have an assembly consisting of their chosen representatives; that there should be trial by jury and religious freedom; that no taxes should be levied except by the Assembly; that there should be in the colony no cock-fights, stage-plays, lotteries, drunkenness, duelling, or swearing; that the poor should be cared for; that prisoners should be treated kindly; that liquor should not be sold to Indians.

From Chester, Penn proceeded up the Delaware River to the place which had been chosen as the site of the capital city and which had been named Philadelphia—"the city of brotherly love." Here the proprietor established a home and took up the serious task of governing his colony. One of his first acts was

¹ In 1702 Delaware refused to send members to the Pennsylvania Assembly, but it remained under the Pennsylvania governor until 1776.



The Penn treaty tree at Shackamaxon.

to make a treaty with the neighboring Indians. Beneath a great elm Penn met the chiefs of seventeen tribes at a place just north of Philadelphia called Shackamaxon—"the place of kings"—and bought from them their lands, and entered into an agreement with them that the English and the Indians should live in peace and friendship as long as the sun gave light, an agreement that was sacredly kept by both sides for nearly seventy years.

Penn remained with his colonists for two years, and was then called back to England. When he returned in 1699 he found that wonderful changes had been made during his absence. More than twenty thousand white people had come to live in his province. Philadelphia, which in 1684 he had left a rude village, had grown to be a thriving city of ten thousand souls, and was carrying on a profitable trade with England and the West Indies. In the city there were tanneries, potteries, sawmills, flour-mills. Many of the houses were built of brick. Markets were held twice a week, and there were inns where the traveler could get good board and a comfortable bed.

In 1701 Penn bade his colony farewell for the last time, and



William Penn's house.
Now in Fairmount Park, Philadelphia.

sailed for England. It had been his intention to plant a colony that should be better governed and that should be more prosperous than any that had yet been planted in America. In this ambition he was not disappointed. When his long and useful life came to an end in 1718 there was not in all America a more flourishing colony than Pennsylvania, nor was there another in which good laws did so much to make men happy.

QUESTIONS ON THE TEXT

1. By what nations was Delaware claimed? Why did the Dutch claim Delaware?
2. Give an account of the Swedes in Delaware.
3. Tell the story of William Penn and the Quakers.
4. In what way did Penn become the proprietor of Pennsylvania? Give an account of Penn's government of his colony. Give an account of the founding and growth of Philadelphia.

REVIEW AND READING REFERENCES

1. Dates: 1522, 1607, 1609, 1620, 1643, 1664
2. Places: Jamestown, New Amsterdam, Plymouth, Providence.
3. Persons: Raleigh, George Calvert, Henry Hudson, Peter Stuyvesant, John Winthrop, Roger Williams.
4. Tell what you can about the Jamestown colony; the founding of Maryland; the patroons; the Pilgrims, the Plymouth colony, the Puritans; the first written constitution, the New England Confederation.
5. Topics: William Penn and the Indians: 8, 21-27. The Swedes in Delaware: 7, 144, 150-152. Pennsylvania: 9, 131-138. Philadelphia: 32, 297-333. Wilmington: 32, 335-360.

X

ALONG THE CAROLINA COAST: NORTH CAROLINA, SOUTH CAROLINA

Here [in the Carolinas] were men from civilized life scattered among the forests, hermits with wives and children, resting in the bosom of nature, in harmony with the wilderness of their gentle clime. With absolute freedom of conscience, reason and goodwill to man were the simple rule of their conduct.—*George Bancroft*.

54. The Carolina Coast.—Let us now turn to the low, sandy coast of the region that was first named Carolina by the French in honor of Charles IX of France, and that in the end retained this name in honor of King Charles II of England. After the attempts at settlement made by Lane and White (p. 21) the Carolina coast was for a time neglected. About the middle of the seventeenth century, however, English settlements began to appear along Albemarle Sound. The settlers came from Virginia, some to seek better farming- and grazing-lands, others to enjoy the freedom and independence of pioneer life.

These early settlements attracted the attention of a group of English gentlemen and noblemen, who, in 1663, applied to Charles II for a grant of land in the Carolina region. The king gave them a tract that was to extend from Virginia on the north to Florida on the south, and that embraced the present States of North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia. In the westerly direction the tract was to extend, as usual, from the Atlantic to the Pacific. This almost boundless region was given to eight royal favorites who were to hold it as absolute lords and proprietors.¹

55. North Carolina.—The proprietors at first placed the matter of government in the hands of Governor Berkeley of Vir-

¹ The proprietors were the Earl of Clarendon, the Duke of Albemarle, Lord Craven, Lord Berkeley, Lord Ashley, Sir George Carteret, Sir William Berkeley, and Sir John Colleton.

ginia, who sent William Drummond down to rule over the northern settlements. Government in Carolina had its beginning in Albemarle, where the foundations of the State of North Carolina were laid. As early as 1665 the sturdy settlers of Albemarle were holding a little assembly for the making of laws. In 1669 the proprietors came forward with a new plan for governing the colony. The plan, known as the *Grand*



Along the Carolina coast.

Model, was drawn up by John Locke, a great philosopher, it is true, but a very unsuitable person to give laws to farmers and backwoodsmen. The Grand Model provided that the people of the colony should be divided into classes. There was to be an upper or governing class, consisting of landgraves (earls) and caciques (barons). Then there

was to be a lower class, consisting of the common people, who were to be governed somewhat as slaves were governed. Now the common people of North Carolina in 1669 were as free as the birds in the trees about them, and they would have nothing whatever to do with the Grand Model, but went on governing themselves in a way worthy of Englishmen.

56. South Carolina.—South Carolina had its beginnings at the mouth of the Ashley River in 1670. In that year the proprietors sent out from London three ship-loads of emigrants who were to found a colony at Port Royal, on the Carolina coast. The company selected a spot for settlement about three miles above the mouth of the Ashley River, and gave to the place the name of Charlestown in honor of the king. The first place of settlement, however, soon began to be abandoned for a better location on the peninsula between the Ashley and the Cooper

rivers, and by 1680 the first Charlestown was deserted and the new Charlestown (now called Charleston) was a flourishing town of 2500 souls.



Early Charleston.

An attempt was made by the proprietors to govern the southern Carolina colony according to the terms of the Grand Model, but the result was quite as disastrous as it was in the northern Carolina colony. The people of Charleston soon discovered that they needed food and clothing more than they needed dukes and earls and high-sounding titles. So they paid very little attention to the fanciful plan of Locke, and established a simple government, one suited to their needs. They had a governor appointed by the proprietors and, like all the other colonies, had an assembly for the making of laws.

Religion played an important part in the settlement of the Carolinas, just as it played an important part in the settlement of New England and Maryland. In North Carolina the Quakers found a warm welcome, while in the other colonies they found only opposition and ill will. In South Carolina the Huguenots—French Protestants—found refuge from religious persecution. In 1598 the French king, Henry of Navarre, issued the Edict of Nantes, under which Huguenots were allowed to live in France in peace; but in 1685 the edict was revoked, and a per-

secution of Huguenots followed. Thousands of these persecuted people fled from their native country and sought refuge in foreign lands. Many of them came to the English colonies and settled in New York, in Maryland, in Virginia, in the Carolinas. Some of them went to Charleston, where they were warmly received and where they rendered noble service in the upbuilding of South Carolina.

Although both North Carolina and South Carolina were under the control of the proprietors, each colony had its own separate government and each developed in its own peculiar way. In North Carolina the people were scattered far apart on their farms, and no large towns were built. It was fifty years before the colony could boast of a village with a dozen houses. In South Carolina everything centered around Charleston, which rapidly pushed forward and became one of the largest and most flourishing cities in the New World. In North Carolina were produced large quantities of pine-tar and turpentine. In South Carolina rice and indigo were the most important products. In both colonies there was slavery, but the slaves in North Carolina were few in number. In South Carolina, where the rice-swamps were deadly to white men and could be cultivated only by negroes, the slaves far outnumbered the free population.



A South Carolina rice-swamp.

Both North Carolina and South Carolina, in the early days, were greatly annoyed by pirates. In the inlets of the coast these sea-robbers found good hiding-places from which to dart forth

and capture the helpless merchant ships that passed by. The leader of the pirates was Edward Teach, generally known as "Blackbeard." Teach and his gang kept the whole coast of Carolina in a state of terror for many years. Finally, in 1718, Governor Johnson of South Carolina gave battle to the pirates, and the war upon them did not cease until Blackbeard and his followers were shot or hanged. After this there was no more piracy along the American coast.

The rule of the proprietors was never satisfactory to the people of the Carolinas. There was always discontent and quarreling, and once the regular government was overthrown by rebels. Nor did the proprietors reap much gain from their vast Carolina possessions. In spite of all their efforts they could wring very little money from the troublesome colonists. So in 1729, when they had a chance to do so, the proprietors gladly sold the Carolinas to the King of England, each proprietor receiving the sum of £5000 for his share. The Carolinas now passed under the control of the king and were governed as separate colonies until the Revolution.



Captain Teach, commonly called "Blackbeard."

QUESTIONS ON THE TEXT

1. Give an account of the early settlement of the Carolina coast. To whom was the coast granted?
2. Where and when were the foundations of North Carolina laid? What was the Grand Model?
3. Give an account of the early history of South Carolina and of its government. Who were the Huguenots? Contrast life in North Carolina with life in South Carolina. Give an account of piracy along the Carolina coast. Why did the proprietors give up their claim to the Carolinas?

REVIEW AND READING REFERENCES

1. Dates: 1492, 1607, 1609, 1620, 1643, 1664, 1682.
2. Places: Palos, New Amsterdam, Plymouth, Boston, Providence, Philadelphia.
3. Persons: Americus Vesputius, Balboa, George Calvert, Henry Hudson, Peter Stuyvesant, John Winthrop, Roger Williams, William Penn.
4. Tell what you can about: the voyage of Magellan; the founding of Maryland; the Pilgrims; the Plymouth colony; the Puritans; the first written constitution; the New England Confederation; the founding of Pennsylvania.
5. Topics: The Carolina pirates: 7, 162-166. The people of Carolina: 9, 115-128. Life in the Carolinas: 16, 39-51. Charleston: 33, 249-292. Wilmington (North Carolina): 33, 219-248.

XI

REBELLIONS AND INDIAN UPRISINGS

Through the trees fierce eyeballs glowed,
Dark human forms in moonshine showed
Wild from their native wilderness
With painted limbs and battle dress!
A yell the dead might wake to hear
Swelled on the night air far and clear,
Then smote the Indian tomahawk
On crashing door and shattered lock—
Then rang the rifle-shot—and then
The shrill death-scream of stricken men.

J. G. Whittier.

Introduction.—The story of the earlier colonies—of Virginia, Maryland, New York, and the New England colonies—has been carried forward in previous chapters through the first half of the seventeenth century. The important events in these colonies during the latter half of the seventeenth century must now receive attention. These events have to do, for the most part, with the actions of discontented colonists and with the uprisings of restless and jealous Indians.

57. Charles II Rules Virginia Harshly.—Virginia during this period was especially a scene of violence and misrule. You will recall that, while the Puritans were pouring into New England between 1630 and 1640, Charles I was having a quarrel with his people about church matters and about taxes. That quarrel did not end until 1649, when the king was beheaded and Oliver Cromwell, a great man and a man of the plain people, was chosen to rule over England. Cromwell and his son Richard held the reins of government until 1660, when Charles II, the son of Charles I, was restored to the kingship.

Charles II was no sooner on his throne than he began to rule Virginia with a heavy hand. In the first place, he appointed as governor of the colony Sir William Berkeley, a man who was a

tyrant by nature and who was already heartily disliked by a great many of the colonists. In the second place, the king undertook to enforce certain navigation laws which had been passed during Cromwell's time and during the reign of Charles II. These laws compelled the colonists to ship goods only in English vessels, to sell goods only to English merchants, and to buy goods only from English merchants. Under these laws the Virginia planters were compelled to sell their tobacco at whatever price the English merchants chose to give them, and they were compelled to pay for goods brought into the colony whatever price the English merchants might ask.

58. Bacon's Rebellion.—The discontent caused by the harsh navigation laws was increased by Berkeley's conduct in respect to the Indians. One night in January, 1676, savages crept softly into the new settlements and murdered about forty persons. Berkeley refused to send a force against the Indians and allowed the outrage to go unpunished. He was carrying on a profitable fur trade with the Indians, and he did not want his private business disturbed. His do-nothing policy made the people very angry, and they declared that if the governor would not defend them they would defend themselves.

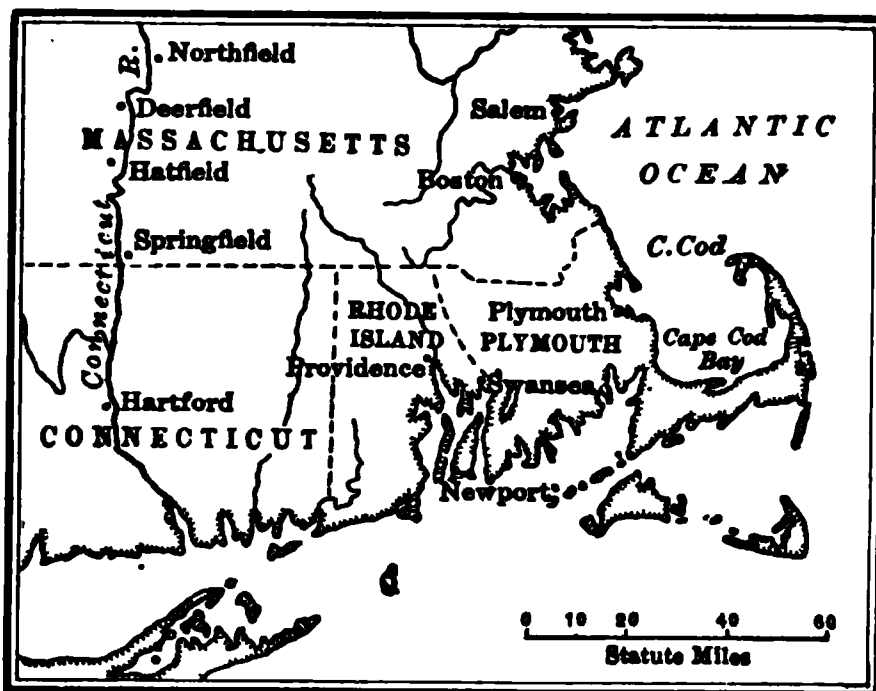
The people found a leader in Nathaniel Bacon, a rich young man of noble birth. In defiance of the governor, Bacon raised a body of fighting men, marched against the Indians, and punished them severely. This brought on a quarrel which ended in Bacon's marching on Jamestown and burning it to the ground. Berkeley was driven from the colony. Young Bacon was now the master of Virginia, but just as he was at the height of his power he fell sick of a fever and died.

When Bacon died, the rebellion fell to pieces and the rebels dispersed to their homes. Berkeley returned to Virginia and wreaked a terrible vengeance upon the followers of Bacon. Twenty-three persons were put to death. "The old fool," said Charles II, "has taken away more lives in that naked country than I did here for the death of my father." The king, in disgust, deprived Berkeley of his office. When the old tyrant took his departure for England (1677), guns were fired, bonfires

were kindled, and people shouted until their throats were sore. So Bacon's Rebellion accomplished at least two good things: it caused the Indians to behave themselves, and it enabled Virginia to get rid of a very bad governor.

59. King Philip's War.—In the same year in which Bacon gave battle to the Indians in Virginia, the people of New England also were engaged in a bloody Indian war. Although after

the Pequot War (p. 56) there was a long peace in New England between the Indians and the whites, as the years passed by it became plainer and plainer to the Indian mind that the white man could not always be the red man's friend. The white man was cutting down the



Scene of King Philip's War.

forests and driving away the game. He was clearing up the banks of streams, destroying the home of the beaver and tearing away the fish-weirs. If the white man was not checked, the Indian would have no occupation and no home.

In 1675 the struggle that had to come sooner or later was begun. The first blow was struck by the Indians under the leadership of Philip, the chief of the Wampanoags, a son of that Massasoit who had made a treaty with the Plymouth settlers. King Philip, as the chief was called, began by attacking the little town of Swansea, in Rhode Island, and killing eight men. He was soon joined by other tribes, and the cruel warfare spread. Deerfield, Springfield, and Hartford were burned, and the inhabitants slain and scalped or carried into captivity. Many of the colonists were at first stricken with terror, but they quickly rallied. Massachusetts, Plymouth, and Connecticut joined their forces against Philip, and before the end of the summer of 1676 the Indian strength was broken and Philip himself was run down and slain. The victory was a costly one. Thirteen towns

had been sacked and burned, and more than two thousand settlers had been killed and wounded.

60. James II Rules New England Harshly.—About ten years after the close of King Philip's War the people of New England were again thrown into great excitement. This time the trouble came from England. In 1685 Charles II died and his brother James II was proclaimed king. The next year the new king sent over Sir Edmund Andros to act as governor of all New England. Andros was given power to deprive all the colonies



The Charter Oak at Hartford.

Blown down in 1856.

of their old charters and to give them a new government. The colonies were governed in so many different ways that they gave the king a great deal of trouble, and he desired Andros to simplify the system of government and bring New England more directly under the control of the crown. Now the people of New England had become accustomed to govern themselves in their own way, and they gave Andros a very cold reception indeed. When he went to Hartford and demanded the surrender of the charter of the Connecticut colony, the charter was spirited away and hidden in the hollow of an oak-tree, and Andros never got his hands on the precious document. In Massachusetts the new governor took the old charter away from the colony, and the people were compelled to submit to his rule.

They were not compelled, however, to submit long, for in 1689 James II was driven from his throne, and his daughter Mary and her husband, William III, were proclaimed the joint rulers of England. When it was learned in America that James II was no longer king, the people of Massachusetts at once had Andros arrested, and he was soon sent out of the colony.

In 1691 the king gave out a new charter which joined Maine (p. 54) and Plymouth to Massachusetts and which provided that Massachusetts should henceforth be ruled by a governor appointed by the king. Connecticut and Rhode Island were allowed to govern themselves under their old charters, as they had been allowed to do before the coming of Andros.

QUESTIONS ON THE TEXT

1. Who was Oliver Cromwell? In what way did Charles II displease the Virginians? What were the navigation laws?
2. What causes led to Bacon's Rebellion? Give an account of that rebellion.
3. What led the Indians of New England to wage war against the whites? Give an account of King Philip's War.
4. For what purpose was Sir Edmund Andros sent to the colonies? Give an account of Andros in New England. What was the effect of the charter of 1691?

REVIEW AND READING REFERENCES

1. Dates: 1522, 1609, 1620, 1643, 1681, 1682.
2. Places: St. Augustine, San Salvador, New Amsterdam, Plymouth, Providence, Philadelphia, Charleston.
3. Persons: Magellan, De Soto, Virginia Dare, John Winthrop, Roger Williams, William Penn.
4. Tell what you can about: the Pilgrims; the Plymouth colony; the Puritans; the first written constitution; the New England Confederation; the founding of Pennsylvania.
5. Topics: Bacon's Rebellion: 7, 157-160. King Philip: 10, 9-50. The Great Swamp Fight: 14, 83-84. The defeat of King Philip: 11, 44-58. Commerce and navigation laws: 9, 243-253.

XII

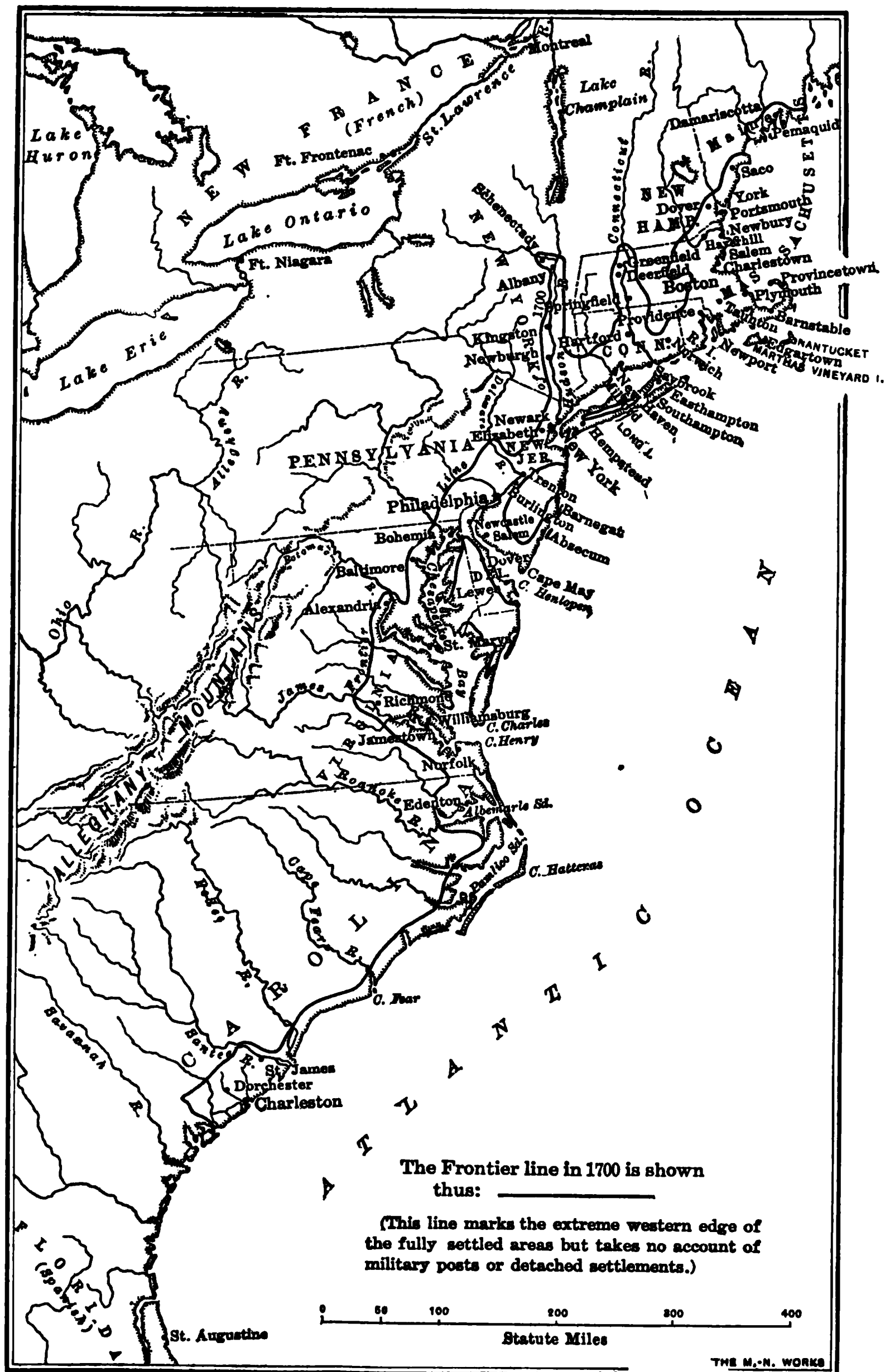
OUR COUNTRY IN THE YEAR 1700

Thus organized, the twelve colonies [in 1700] contained the elements of our country as it is to-day.—*Richard Frothingham.*

Introduction.—The account of English colonization on the Atlantic coast has now been brought down to the end of the seventeenth century. What was the result of a hundred years of colony-planting? You have learned how the country looked in the year 1600. What kind of a country was it in the year 1700? What changes had taken place in America between the time when John Smith, in 1607, first sailed into the Chesapeake and the time when William Penn, in 1701, bade his colony a last farewell?

61. The Area of Settlement in 1700.—By the year 1700 the dense forests directly along the Atlantic coast had, for the most part, disappeared, the wild beasts had been driven inland, and the savages had been taught to let the settlers live in peace. All along the seaboard from Nova Scotia to Florida there were thriving communities of white men. It is said that in 1700 it was possible for one to ride on horseback—it would not have been possible in a wheeled vehicle—from Portland in Maine to the southern boundary of Virginia, and to sleep each night in some good-sized village. Such were the results of a hundred years of hard work, of wood-chopping, building, plowing, and planting.

But the settled country along the seaboard in 1700 was still only a very narrow strip of land. In some places the strip was only a few miles wide, and its greatest width was hardly more than a hundred miles. The western boundary of the settled country was the *frontier line*. East of this line men lived in an orderly, civilized manner, and life and property were safe. West of the Frontier Line were the great dark woods, where the only



The Frontier Line in 1700.

human beings were Indians and wandering whites, and where every man was a law unto himself. As our story proceeds, this Frontier Line will always be moving farther and farther to the west; and to have a clear understanding of our country's growth, one must carefully watch this line as it advances toward the setting sun.

62. Population; the Three Classes of People.—What was the population of our country in 1700? People were not carefully counted then, but it is likely that there were about 250,000 persons in the twelve seaboard colonies. In New Hampshire there were about 5000; in Massachusetts, 60,000; in Rhode Island, 5000; in Connecticut, 20,000; in New York, 25,000; in New Jersey, 15,000; in Pennsylvania and Delaware, 30,000; in Maryland, 30,000; in Virginia, 65,000; in the Carolinas, 10,000. These estimates—for they are only estimates—include both whites and negro slaves.

The population of the colonies at this time was made up of three classes—freemen, white servants, and negro slaves. Many of the white servants were bound to serve a certain master for a certain time. These were the “indented” servants who, in order to pay for their voyage across the ocean, had sold themselves of their own free will to a shipmaster or a planter for a term of years. Sometimes the term was as long as ten years, but often it was as short as four years. After an indented servant had served out his term he again became a freeman. In the New England colonies there were very few indented servants, but in the other colonies there were a great many. Some white servants were held in service against their will. These were such as had been convicted of crime in England and by way of punishment had been sent to the colonies to serve at hard labor for a term of years.

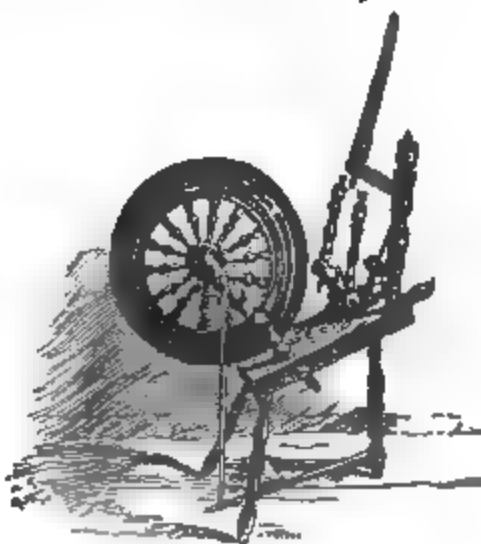
Negro slaves were found in all the colonies. The Quakers of Pennsylvania were opposed to slavery, yet even in that colony the negro was held in bondage. In New England slaves were few in number; in the middle colonies about one person in ten was a slave; in the southern colonies, by the year 1700, a large part of the population was in slavery, and negroes were brought

from Africa at the rate of 25,000 each year. Slave labor in the North was not very profitable to the master, but for the tobacco and rice-fields of the South the African slave was the most profitable workman that could be found.

63. Occupations in 1700.—The chief occupations of the colonies were farming, fur-trading, and fishing. Of these farming was by far the most important, for almost everybody was a farmer. But the colonial farmer in 1700 was usually a Jack of all trades; now he was a hunter and trapper, now a lumberman and carpenter, now a fisherman and sailor. Next in importance to farming came the fur trade. In Europe, in the seventeenth century, stoves were not in use and houses were very poorly heated, if they were heated at all. As a source of warmth, furs were brought into use much more than they are now. Floors were covered with furs, bedclothing consisted largely of furs, and many garments were made of furs. This great demand for furs in Europe made the fur trade in the colonies everywhere profitable, for everywhere the forests abounded in fur-bearing animals. Fishing was carried on most extensively in New England, where in 1700 nearly a thousand vessels were employed in the cod-fishery alone.

Manufacturing in the colonies in 1700 was of course still in a rude state. For all kinds of fine goods the colonists depended upon the workshops of Europe. Certain coarse articles, however, the people could make with their own hands. Many of the colonists had been skilled workmen in the Old World, and in many a colonial home there were spinning and weaving, soap-making, candle-making, cabinet-making, and upholstering. There was one industry in particular that soon gained a foothold in the colonies. This was ship-building.

"Owing to the large supplies of splendid timber at the very water's edge, cheaper and better vessels could be built in the



A colonial flax-wheel.

American colonies than anywhere in Europe." Especially did this industry flourish in New England, where enough vessels were built to supply the home demand, and fifty more were built every year and sold abroad.

64. Education.—In matters of education the colonies had not advanced very far. In New England Harvard College was



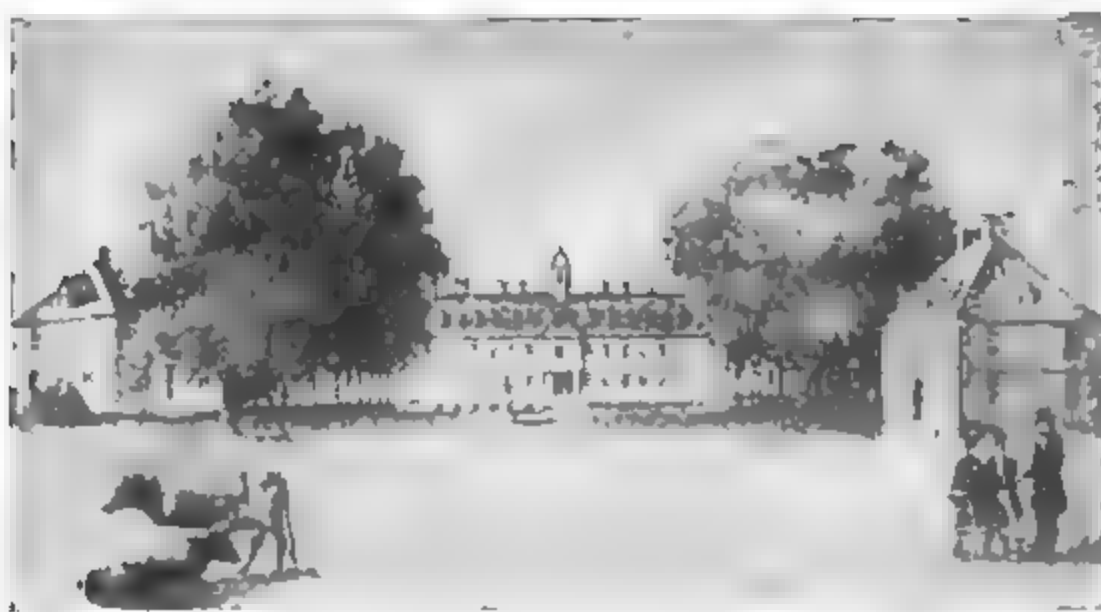
Harvard College in 1726.

flourishing and public schools were quite common. The Hartford Grammar School, now the High School, was founded in 1638, and Yale College in 1701. In the middle colonies there were very few schools, and in the southern almost none at all. In 1671 Governor Berkeley thanked God that there were no schools in Virginia, and expressed a hope that there would be none for a hundred years. If he had lived, however, until 1693 he would have witnessed the founding of William and Mary College, the second college established in America.

65. Religion.—We have seen that religion played an important part in the founding of most of the colonies. By 1700 a number of different faiths had gained a firm foothold in the New World. In Virginia and the Carolinas the Church of England—the Episcopal Church—led all the other denomina-

tions. In Virginia alone there were fifty Episcopal churches. In Maryland the Catholic influence was strong, but the ruling classes belonged to the Episcopal Church. In Pennsylvania, Delaware, and New Jersey the Quakers outnumbered the other denominations, although there were many Lutherans, Baptists, and Presbyterians in these colonies. In New York there was almost every denomination that could be mentioned, but no one church was strong enough to be regarded as the leader. In New England religious feeling was very strong, and the church was the ruling force in almost all the affairs of life. Here the Congregational Church, which was the church of the Puritans, prevailed, except in Rhode Island, where the Baptists were the strongest religious body.

66. Government.—In 1700 the government of one colony did not differ much from the government of another. Each colony had its own governor. In Connecticut and Rhode Island this officer was elected by the people; in Pennsylvania, Maryland, and the Carolinas he was appointed by the proprietor; in the other colonies he was appointed by the King of England. Each



William and Mary College.

colony had a lawmaking body—an assembly or general court—which was elected by the people and which could pass any law that was not contrary to a law of England. Between the assembly and the governor there was a group of assistants or

councilors appointed by the king and known as the council. In every colony there were judges to try cases and settle disputes. In every colony the right of voting was given to men who owned a certain amount of property.

Thus we see that by 1700 a second England had been carried across the sea and firmly planted along the Atlantic coast. It is true there were some Dutch in New York and some Swedes in Delaware and Pennsylvania, but in the main the people of the seaboard colonies were English. They spoke English, they lived in the English way, and they enjoyed the blessings of English government and law.

QUESTIONS ON THE TEXT

1. To what extent had the English by 1700 made settlements on the Atlantic seaboard? What is meant by the Frontier Line? Trace this line for the year 1700. (See map, p. 81.)

2. What was the estimated population of the several colonies in 1700? Who were the "indented servants"? Give an account of slavery in the colonies.

3. What were the chief occupations of the colonists in 1700? Why was the fur trade so important? To what extent was there manufacturing in the colonies?

4. What advancement had the colonies made in education in 1700?

5. By 1700 what denominations had gained a foothold in the colonies?

6. Describe the government of a colony.

REVIEW AND READING REFERENCES

1. Dates: 1620, 1664, 1682, 1689, 1733.

2. Places: Genoa, New Amsterdam, Plymouth, Providence, Philadelphia, Charleston, Schenectady.

3. Persons: George Calvert, Henry Hudson, Peter Stuyvesant, John Winthrop, Roger Williams, William Penn, Nathaniel Bacon, Edmund Andros.

4. Tell what you can about: the Line of Demarcation; the Jamestown colony; the New England Confederation; the founding of Pennsylvania; Bacon's Rebellion; King Philip's War.

5. Topics: Early colonial industry: 9, 180-186; 18, 49-61. Early colonial manufactures: 9, 187-191. Education in the colonies: 9, 192-203. White and black slavery: 9, 219-228; also 18, 78-86. Sports and punishments: 9, 229-233. Colonial farming: 18, 62-76.

XIII

COLONIAL GROWTH BETWEEN 1700 AND 1740

There was hardly one of the thirteen colonies upon which these Scotch-Irish did not leave their mark.—*John Fiske.*

67. Immigration: Germans; Scotch-Irish.—Before 1700 white men who came to the colonies were in nearly all cases Englishmen. About 1700, however, streams of immigrants who were not Englishmen began to pour into America. These newcomers came from almost every country of Europe, but by far the greatest number came from Germany and Ireland. Most of the Germans came from the Rhine country, which was a beautiful region indeed, but which in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries was rendered unsafe for life and property because it was so often overrun by soldiers and devastated by war. A few of the German immigrants went up into New York and settled in the Mohawk valley. The greater part of them, however, settled in Pennsylvania and became known as Pennsylvania Dutch, although they were not Dutch at all. The Germans from the Rhine country began to arrive in Pennsylvania soon after the founding of the colony, and by 1727 they were coming over in large numbers. In one year (1749) more than 7000 arrived, and it is estimated that by 1776 over 100,000 Germans and Swiss had settled in Pennsylvania alone, to say nothing of those who had settled in other colonies.

The Germans were attracted to Pennsylvania because the colony permitted them to become citizens on easy terms and because it offered them cheap lands. They were worthy of their citizenship, for they were self-respecting, intelligent, and industrious. They were also worthy of their lands, for they proved to be excellent farmers and the best of pioneers. They attacked the great forests of Pennsylvania in earnest. The Englishman at

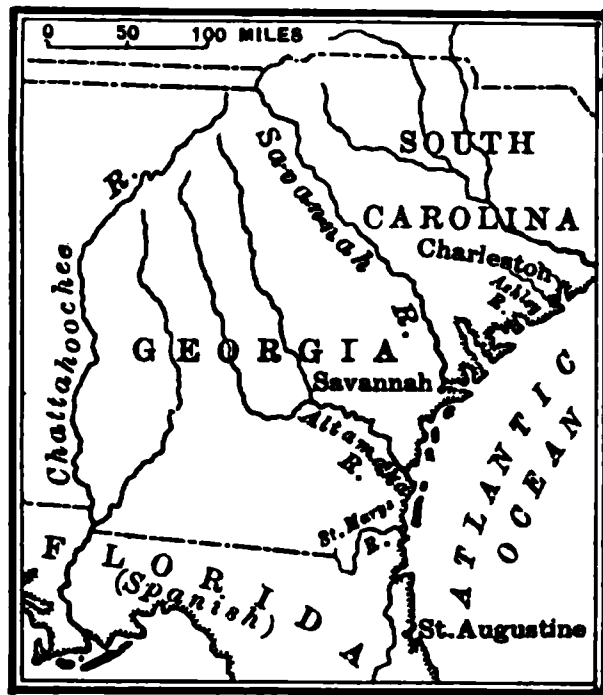
first would till only the land that lay along the rivers, but the German would plunge boldly into the unbroken wilderness and clear a farm many miles removed from any settlement. It was the sturdy stroke of the German's ax that brought eastern Pennsylvania rapidly under cultivation, and it was to the thrift and industry of the German farmer that Pennsylvania owed much of her prosperity in early times.

Another great stream of immigration flowed from the north of Ireland and consisted of Scotch-Irish. The Scotch-Irish were simply Scotchmen who lived in Ireland. During the seventeenth century large numbers of Scotch Presbyterians moved to the north of Ireland, and by the beginning of the eighteenth century several hundred thousand had established homes in the county of Ulster. But they were discontented in their new home. They were subjects of the English crown, but they were not well treated by the English government. They were annoyed on account of their religion and were not allowed freedom in matters of trade. So the Scotch-Irish looked to America as a place of refuge, and in the early years of the eighteenth century began to emigrate to the colonies. They settled in all parts of British America, in New England, in the middle colonies, and in the South. Large numbers of them settled in North Carolina and played a most important part in the development of that colony. But Pennsylvania received the largest share of the Scotch-Irish, just as it received the largest share of the Germans. The Scotch-Irish began to arrive in Pennsylvania in considerable numbers about 1715, and by 1729 were landing on the wharves of Philadelphia in such numbers that the governor of the province became alarmed lest they should make themselves masters of the province. "It looks," said the governor, "as if Ireland would send all its inhabitants hither, for last week not less than six ships arrived." Sometimes as many as 10,000 Scotch-Irish came to Pennsylvania in a single year, and between 1730 and 1770 it is probable that half a million emigrants from the north of Ireland came to the American colonies.

The coming of the Scotch-Irish and Germans and other foreigners caused the population of the New World to increase at

a rate before unknown. In 1700 the population of the colonies, after nearly a century of growth, was about 250,000 (p. 82). In 1740 their population was about 1,000,000.

68. Georgia.—Some of the Germans and Scotch-Irish found their way to the new colony of Georgia, which in 1733 was founded on the Carolina coast. The portion of the seaboard lying between the Ashley and the St. Mary's rivers was claimed by Spain as well as by England, but no settlement was made on this part of the coast by either nation until George II, King of England, gave to James Oglethorpe and some of his associates a charter for the land between the Savannah and the Altamaha rivers, westward to the Pacific Ocean.



Map of Georgia.

Oglethorpe sailed from England with thirty-five families, and in 1733 reached the mouth of the Savannah River, where he began to build the city of Savannah and to lay the foundations of Georgia.

There was a double purpose in the planting of the Georgia colony. In the first place, the king wanted a barrier between Florida and the Carolinas. He saw that the Spaniards of Florida were pushing northward, and he wished to head them off by planting a colony of Englishmen at the mouth of the Savannah. In the second place, Oglethorpe saw in the wilds of Georgia a place where he could carry out a scheme that was dear to his heart. In London at this time a great many worthy people were confined in the prisons for debt—a thing that could not happen to-day, but was once very common. Oglethorpe sincerely pitied these poor debtors, and it was for their sake that he gave his time and his money to the founding of Georgia. He caused the most worthy of the debtors to be released from prison, and many of these he took with him to his colony, where they could become owners of land and build up their fortunes anew. Idle and vicious people, however, were not allowed to

come to the colony; only those who were willing to work were welcome.

Oglethorpe went to Georgia in person and served as its governor. He was assisted in governing by a small number of trustees. These trustees made all the laws. The charter made no provision for a popular lawmaking body. Slavery was for-



James Edward Oglethorpe.

Born at London, in 1696; died
in England, in 1785.

bidden in the colony, and intoxicating liquor could not be imported. As long as Oglethorpe remained with his colonists, affairs went well. Once (in 1742) the Spaniards attacked Savannah, but Oglethorpe met the attack bravely and drove them back.

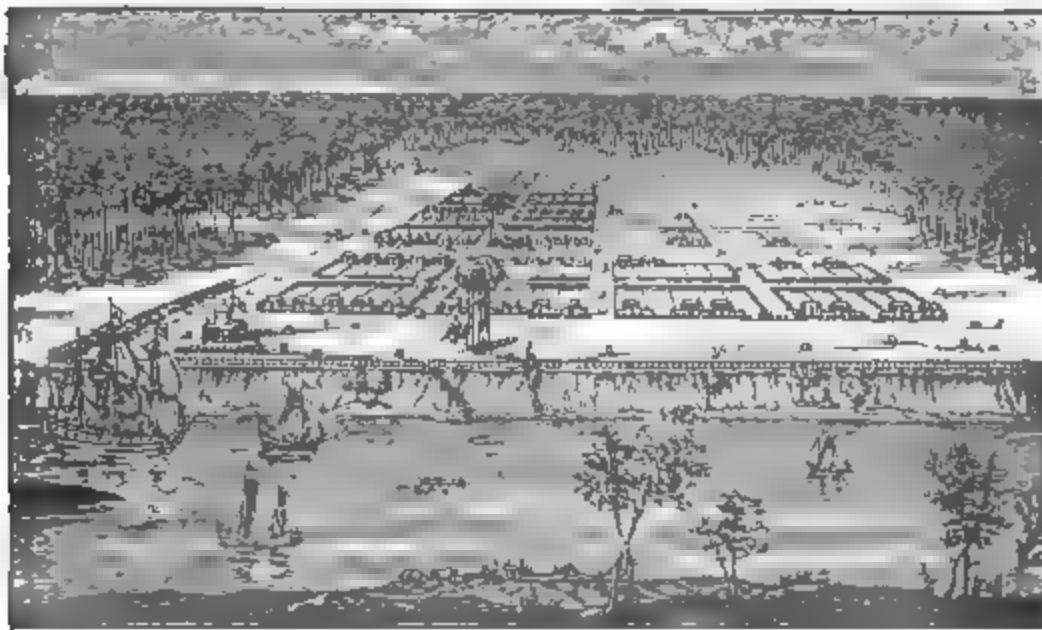
After a faithful service of ten years Oglethorpe returned to England to remain. Then the colonists became dissatisfied. They wanted rum, they wanted slaves, and they wanted a law-making body composed of chosen representatives. In the end they got all

these things. In 1752 the plan of governing by trustees was given up, and Georgia became a royal colony and remained under the government of the king until the Revolution, when it had a population of 50,000 souls.

69. Moving Westward; the Great Valley of the Shenandoah.—After the founding of Georgia no more English colonies were planted, for the time had come when it was more desirable to develop the existing colonies than to organize new ones. At the opening of the eighteenth century in almost every colony there were great areas of vacant land, and colonial growth for many years consisted mainly in bringing these lands under cultivation and filling them with people. This development necessarily took a westward course, for if the English colonists went far to the north they met the French, and if they went far to the south they met the Spanish. In New York the Westward Movement between 1700 and 1740 was very slow, because the progress of the English was opposed not only by the French, but also by power-

ful tribes of Iroquois Indians. But in the western part of Pennsylvania, Virginia, and North Carolina the Indians were less troublesome and there were as yet no French at all. So it was from Pennsylvania and from the southern colonies that the settlers first began to move in considerable numbers toward the West.

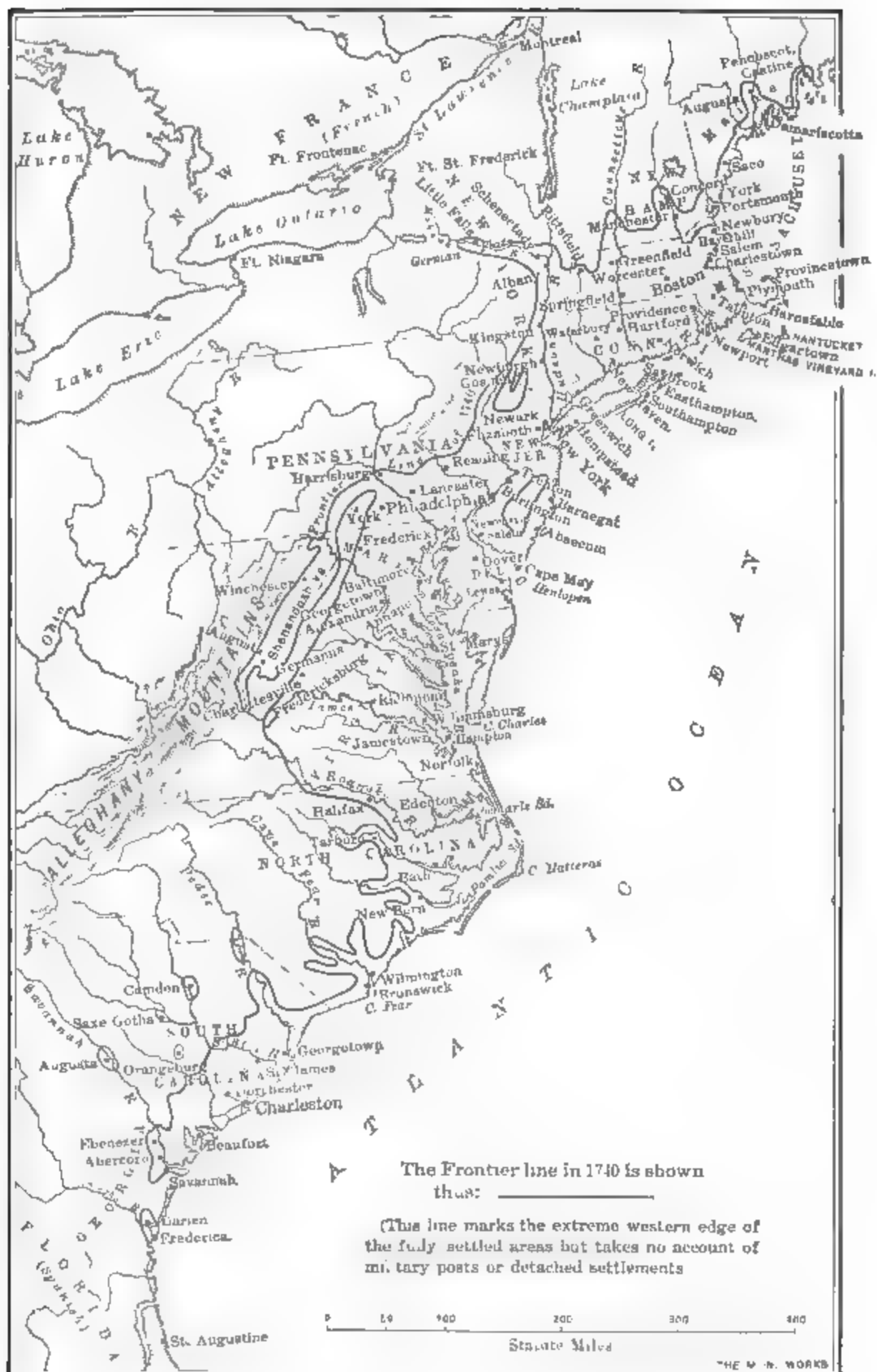
The first important westward movement of population began with the settlement of the beautiful valley which lies between the Blue Ridge and the Alleghany Mountains and which is drained by the Shenandoah River. In 1716 Governor Spotswood of Virginia, with fifty companions, entered this valley near the present site of Port Republic, and with much ceremony took possession of the region in the name of King George of England. His purpose in pushing out into the valley was to head off the



Savannah in 1741.

French, who at the time, as we shall learn more fully hereafter, had already taken possession of the country west of the Alleghanies and were pushing east as fast as they dared.

Soon after the expedition of Spotswood the settlement of the Shenandoah began in earnest. First came a few settlers from the older parts of Virginia. Then came large numbers of the Scotch-Irish and Germans from Pennsylvania. These enterprising people by 1730 had crossed the Susquehanna and were



The Frontier Line in 1740.

making settlements in the Cumberland valley. In 1732 they began to move down into the Shenandoah valley and build rude cabins and plant corn-fields. In a few years so many people—Virginians, Scotch-Irish, and Germans—had settled in the valley that it became necessary for them to have some form of government. So in 1738 Virginia took the matter in hand and organized the Shenandoah region as a county and provided it with a regular government. Thus between 1700 and 1740 the strip of English civilization along the Atlantic seaboard was greatly widened, and the Frontier Line (p. 92) was carried westward over the Blue Ridge Mountains to the eastern base of the Alleghanies.

QUESTIONS ON THE TEXT

1. Why did the Germans leave the Rhine country? In what way did the Germans help in the development of Pennsylvania? Who were the Scotch-Irish? Why did they come to America? Where did they settle?
2. What grant of land was given to Oglethorpe? What were Oglethorpe's plans? Describe the first government of Georgia. When and why was this form of government changed?
3. Why did the development of the English colonies proceed in a westerly direction? In what colonies did the Westward Movement begin? Give an account of the settlement of the Shenandoah valley.

REVIEW AND READING REFERENCES

1. Dates: 1522, 1607, 1664, 1682.
2. Places: San Salvador, St. Augustine, Jamestown, Providence.
3. Persons: Cartier, Cabot, Raleigh, George Calvert, Peter Stuyvesant, John Winthrop.
4. Tell what you can about: the founding of Maryland; the Pilgrims; the New England Confederation; the Frontier Line in 1700; slavery in the colonies in 1700.
5. Topics: James Oglethorpe: 8, 27–32. Georgia: 16, 39–51. Savannah: 33, 293–326. (For the Germans in Pennsylvania, read Kuhn's "Germans and Swiss in Pennsylvania." For the Scotch-Irish, read John Fiske's "Old Virginia and her Neighbors." For the settlement of the Shenandoah valley, read F. J. Turner's "The Old West.")

XIV

ALONG THE ST. LAWRENCE AND THE MISSISSIPPI: CANADA; LOUISIANA

France arrived to subdue, not by the sword but by the cross; not to overwhelm and crush the nations she wounded, but to convert, civilize, and embrace them among her children.

Francis Parkman.

70. The French Power in Canada.—While England was gaining control of the Atlantic coast, France was busy in establishing her power along the St. Lawrence, the Great Lakes, and the Mississippi. We have seen (p. 17) that Cartier, at a very early date, visited the St. Lawrence region and claimed it for France. But the real founder of Canada was that Samuel Champlain¹ whom we saw (p. 39) skirmishing with the Iroquois Indians. In 1608—only a year after the settlement of Jamestown—Champlain planted the French flag on the rock of Quebec, and began in earnest the work of extending the French power in the New World. From Quebec as their base, the French pushed their explorations in almost every direction. By 1615 Champlain had made his way in person as far as the shores of Lake Huron, and before he died (in 1635) the French power had been established in the far-off wilds of Michigan and Wisconsin.

But the French did not lay the foundations of their power in America deep and strong as did the English. They did not bring their families with them; they cleared off but few forests; they tilled but few fields; they built no large towns. Their purpose in America was to accomplish three things: (1) to add to the glory of France by causing her flag to wave over new places; (2) to convert the Indians to the Christian religion; (3) to carry on a profitable trade in furs. For manufacturing and farming they cared very little. When they built a fort the

¹ Born in France, in 1567; died at Quebec, in 1635.

Indians were given to understand that no trees would be felled and that no fields would be planted. This was good for the Indians, for it left them their hunting-grounds, but it was bad for the French, for it rendered impossible the occupation of farming, the very occupation that was necessary for a healthy and steady growth. Without farming large numbers of people cannot be fed and large communities cannot be built up. All the French settlements were small places. Even Quebec, the oldest and largest town, a hundred years after it was founded was a mere village. After a century of growth the French in America had a population only one fifteenth as large as the population of the English colonies.

71. Marquette and La Salle.—The work begun by Champlain was taken up by others and carried forward with great devotion and perseverance. Foremost among the Frenchmen who took part in building up a new France in America were James Marquette¹ and Robert La Salle.² Marquette was a Jesuit priest—a member of the Society of Jesus. The Jesuits at the time were going into all parts of the world, into Asia and Africa as well as into America, and with great devotion were lifting up the cross and bringing heathen people into the Christian fold. Nowhere was the zeal of the Jesuits greater than it was among the American Indians, and no Jesuit missionary was more zealous than Marquette.

In 1673 this pious man, in company with some fur-traders and guides, ascended the Fox River as far as birch-bark canoes would float, made an easy portage³ to the Wisconsin River,



The Champlain statue at Quebec.

¹ Born at Laon, France, in 1637; died near Lake Michigan, in 1675.

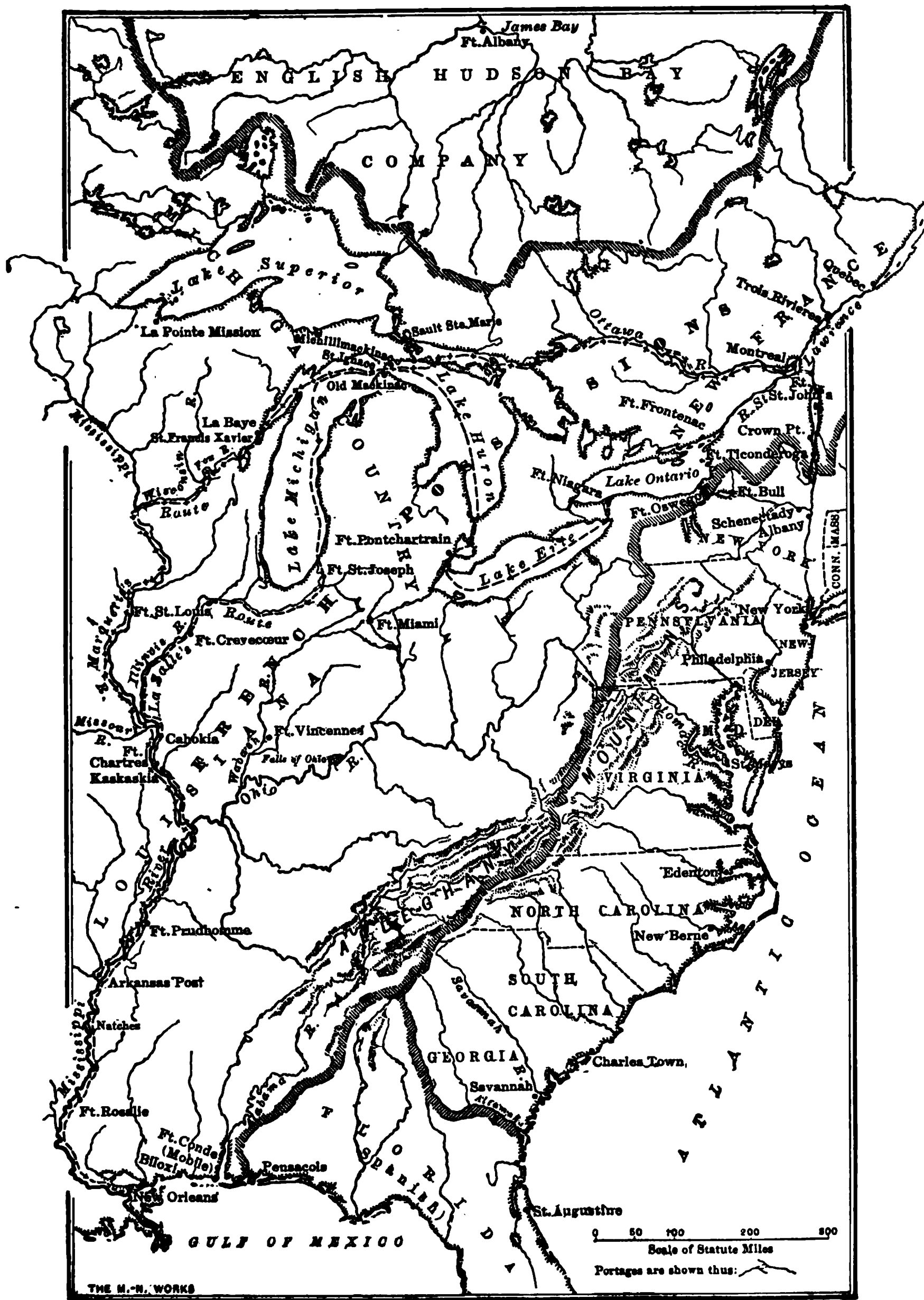
² Born at Rouen, France, in 1643; was assassinated in Texas in 1687 by some of his followers while endeavoring to found a colony at the mouth of the Mississippi.

³ A portage is a break in a water route over which goods or boats have to be carried, as from one river to another -- along the banks of a river round a waterfall or rapid.—*Century Di*

followed this stream to the Mississippi, and continued his journey southward on the Father of Waters until he came to the mouth of the Arkansas, the point in the great river where the body of De Soto was buried (p. 13). Here Marquette turned his boat around and made his tiresome way northward, against swift-flowing streams, till he reached the Michigan country, where his labors were soon ended by death. It is said that when he died he was kneeling at an altar which he had made with his own hands, and that his lifeless body, when found, was still in the attitude of prayer.

La Salle completed for France the work of discovery begun by Marquette. About 1670 this daring explorer discovered the Ohio—the Beautiful River—and in 1682 he floated down the Mississippi to its mouth. Here he raised the French flag and took possession of the Mississippi basin in the name of France, calling the vast region Louisiana, in honor of his king, Louis XIV. France was now in possession of the St. Lawrence valley, the Great Lake region, and the Mississippi valley. While the English were making themselves masters of only a narrow strip of coast land, the French had gained control of the heart of America and of the most valuable portions of the New World.

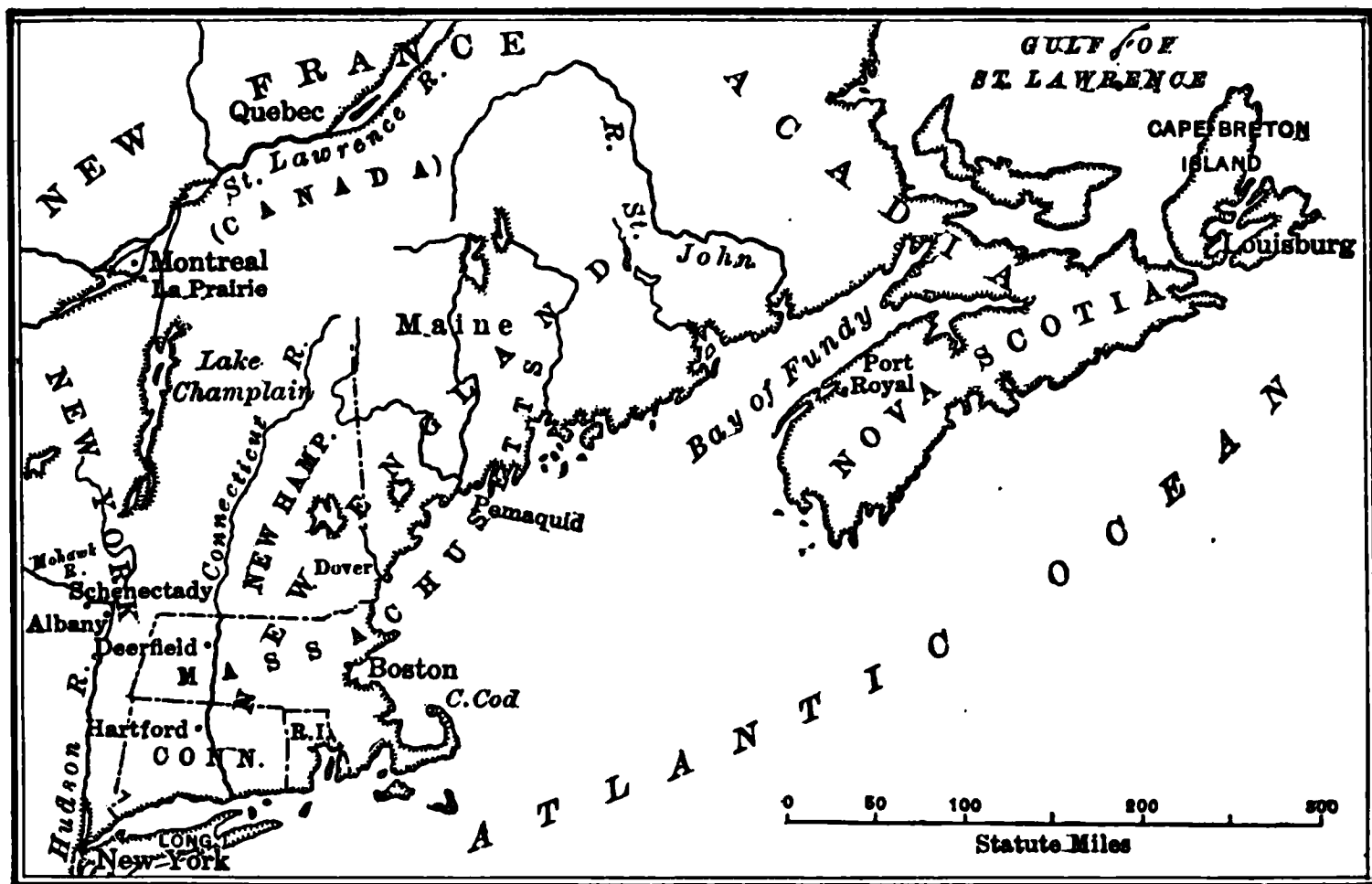
72. The Rivalry of France and England.—It was not to be expected that England would stand with folded arms and look on while the French gained possession of the heart of the American continent. France and England had been bitter enemies for centuries before America was discovered, and throughout the greater part of our history these nations have never ceased to be jealous rivals. When one has tried to extend its power, the other has nearly always tried to block its rival's progress. When one nation has waged war upon a country, the other has usually rushed to the defense of that country. The friends of France have been the enemies of England, and the enemies of France have been the friends of England. This rivalry of France and England is a great factor in the world-history of modern times, and it helps to clear up many points in American history to remember that France and England for centuries were foes, and that when one of these countries has desired a



Map of the French possessions

certain thing the other country has usually desired something else.

73. King William's War.—The first serious clash in America between England and France came in 1689, when William III



Scene of King William's War, Queen Anne's War, and King George's War.

was made King of England (p. 79). James II and the King of France, Louis XIV, had been strong friends, and when James lost his throne the French king took up his friend's cause and waged war upon William. As soon as Frontenac, the governor of Canada, learned that England and France were at war, he planned a series of attacks upon the border settlements of New England and New York. The men who were to make these attacks were for the most part Indians friendly to the French and hostile to the English. One night in 1689 a body of Frontenac's Indians fell upon the little village of Dover, in New Hampshire, and massacred about half the people. The town was burned to the ground, and the inhabitants who were not killed were carried away and sold into slavery. A few months after this, Pemaquid, a settlement in Maine, was treated in the same way. But the most shameful deed of King William's War was the terrible massacre at Schenectady, in New York.

One night in February, 1690, a band of Frenchmen and Indians rushed in upon this frontier town at an hour when everybody was asleep, and began the work of destruction. Buildings were set on fire, men were shot as they ran out of their houses, and women and children were either burned to death or were murdered as they lay in their beds. Sixty persons were killed outright, and nearly a hundred were captured and carried away.

These outrages on the part of the French of course stirred the people of New England to resistance. In 1690 Sir William Phipps of Massachusetts led a fleet of thirty vessels against Port Royal, in Nova Scotia, and captured that place. He then sailed against Quebec, but the town was so strongly fortified that he thought it wise to turn back without striking a blow. The war dragged on until it was brought to an end by a treaty of peace signed at Ryswick, in Holland, in 1697.

74. Queen Anne's War.—A second clash between the French and English colonies came in 1702, when the King of France placed his grandson on the throne of Spain and thus threatened to spread the French power over Spain. Of course this was distasteful to the English, and France and England went to war over the matter. In America the war was known as Queen Anne's War, Anne being then the Queen of England. Queen Anne's War was simply King William's War over again. The French and Indians rushed down from Canada and attacked the unprotected settlements of the English. At Deerfield, in Massachusetts, there was a frightful slaughter of the inhabitants. The people of New England attacked Nova Scotia, and in 1710 gained possession of that peninsula. Queen Anne's War was brought to a close in 1713 by the treaty of Utrecht. The war had one important result: it took Nova Scotia from France and gave it to England.

75. French Colonies and Forts in the Mississippi Valley.—While these wars were in progress, the French were all the time strengthening their power in the Mississippi valley. The deeds of La Salle had caused France to take a greater interest in the affairs of America than she had ever shown before. Under the direction of the great king Louis were set on

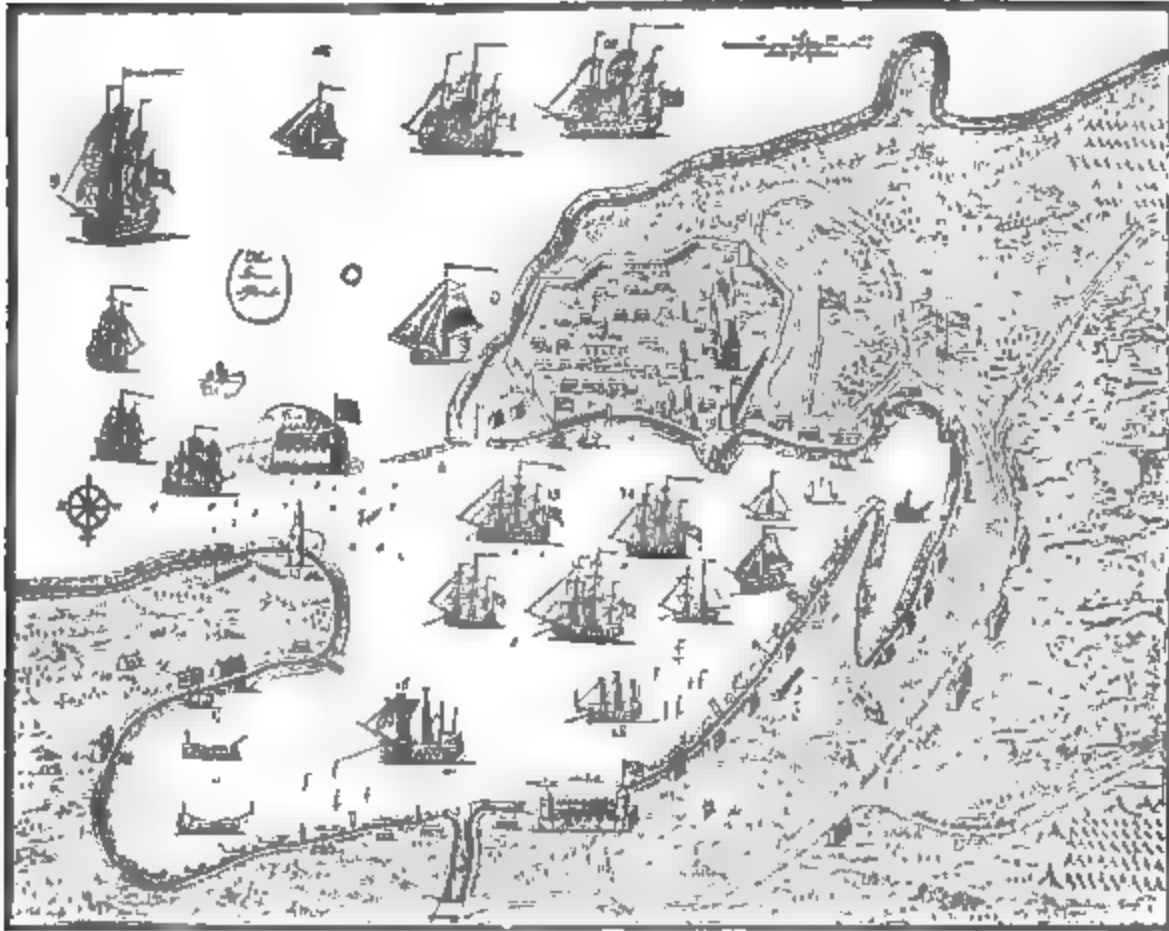
foot for the planting of colonies near the mouth of the Mississippi River, and by 1716 Bienville had laid the foundations of Natchez, the oldest permanent settlement in the Mississippi valley south of Illinois. In 1718 New Orleans was founded, and in 1722 it was made the capital city of Louisiana. France also took active measures to strengthen herself in the possession of



New Orleans in 1719.

the entire valley. She fortified important points throughout the valley, and by the time she had finished there were forts on the Mississippi, the Illinois, the Wabash, the Great Lakes, and the St. Lawrence. Between New Orleans and Montreal the French flag waved over more than sixty forts.

76. King George's War.—For thirty years after the treaty of Utrecht there was peace between the French and English in America. Then there was a third clash. From 1740 to 1748 nearly all the nations of Europe were at war with one another. In 1744 England took a hand in the general conflict that was raging, and, as was to be expected, opposed herself to France. The European war now spread to America, where it was known as King George's War. In this war there were the usual raids of French and Indians from Canada, and there was besides a military event of great interest. This was the capture of Louisburg, a fort which the French had built at great expense on the island of Cape Breton to guard the gateway of the St. Lawrence. The walls of the fort were thirty feet high and forty feet thick, and it was thought to be as strong as the rock of Gibraltar. Against this stronghold Sir William Pepperell of Boston, with three thousand men from New England, led an



Louisburg at the time of the siege.

attack, and after a siege of six weeks the mighty fortress fell. At the end of the war Louisburg, by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, was given back (1748) to France, and the great victory, after all, seemed hardly worth while. Nevertheless the taking of Louisburg taught the colonists that they were no longer weaklings and that, if necessary, they could do still greater things.

77. The Ohio Valley Claimed by Both French and English.

—No sooner was King George's War at an end than the French and English colonists began to quarrel over the possession of the Ohio valley. England claimed the magnificent country on the ground that Cabot's discovery made England the owner of all North America, and upon the further ground that the Iroquois Indians who lived in the Ohio country had acknowledged themselves to be English subjects and had granted their Ohio lands to England.

France claimed the Ohio regio

and of La Salle's

discovery. That there might be no mistake about the French claim, the governor of Canada, in 1749, sent a company of French and Indians down the Allegheny and Ohio rivers to take



A part of one of the leaden plates.

This plate was buried at the mouth of the Muskingum River, and was found in after years by some boys while bathing. The plate is in the possession of the American Antiquarian Society of Worcester, Massachusetts.

formal possession of the country in the name of the King of France. As signs of possession, tin plates bearing the arms of France were nailed to trees standing at the mouths of streams flowing into the Ohio, while in the bed of the river were buried leaden plates bearing an inscription to the effect that the land around belonged to France.

England paid no attention whatever to the leaden plates. In the very year in which they were buried, the King of England granted a large tract of the Ohio country to some wealthy Virginians. This action thoroughly aroused the French, and to strengthen their position they at once built a chain of three forts (map, p. 106)—one at Presque Isle (Erie), one twenty miles away at Lebcœuf, and one at Venango (Franklin, Pennsylvania). The building of these forts brought on the fourth and final clash between the English and French in America, a clash which is known as the French and Indian War, and which was really a life-and-death struggle for the possession of North America.

QUESTIONS ON THE TEXT

1. Give an account of Champlain in Canada. What was the purpose of the French colonists? Why did the French colonies grow so slowly in population?
2. Who were the Jesuits? Give an account of the explorations of Marquette and of La Salle.
3. Give an account of the rivalry between France and England.
4. What led to King William's War? Give an account of the fighting in this war.
5. What led to Queen Anne's War? What was the principal event of this war?
6. What cities were founded by the French on the Mississippi River? What forts were built in the Mississippi valley?
7. What led to King George's War? What was the principal event of this war?
8. About the middle of the eighteenth century what claim was made by England upon the Ohio valley? What claim was made by France?

REVIEW AND READING REFERENCES

1. Dates: 1588, 1609, 1664, 1682, 1689 (2)¹, 1733.
2. Places: Palos, Philadelphia, Charleston, Schenectady.
3. Persons: Americus Vesputius, Balboa, Cartier, Roger Williams, Oglethorpe, Bacon, Andros.
4. Tell what you can about: the voyage of Magellan; the founding of Georgia; Bacon's Rebellion; King Philip's War; King William's War; the Frontier Line in 1700; in 1740; slavery in the colonies in 1700; the Germans in Pennsylvania; the Scotch-Irish; the settlement of the Shenandoah valley.
5. Topics: Samuel Champlain: 2, 198-208; also 4, 154-172; 5, 96-106. Marquette: 2, 209-217; also 5, 186-194. La Salle: 2, 217-227; also 5, 195-222. The attack on Deerfield: 5, 272-286. Rapine, slaughter, and destruction: 9, 171-179. Trade with the Indians: 3, 100-103. The French on the Mississippi and the Wabash: 20, 31-38. The Ohio Company, 20, 39-47.

¹ The figure in the parenthesis indicates the number of events that are to be connected with the date.



The first portrait of George Washington.

**Showing him in the uniform of a colonel of Virginia militia.
Painted by Charles Wilson Peale in 1772.**

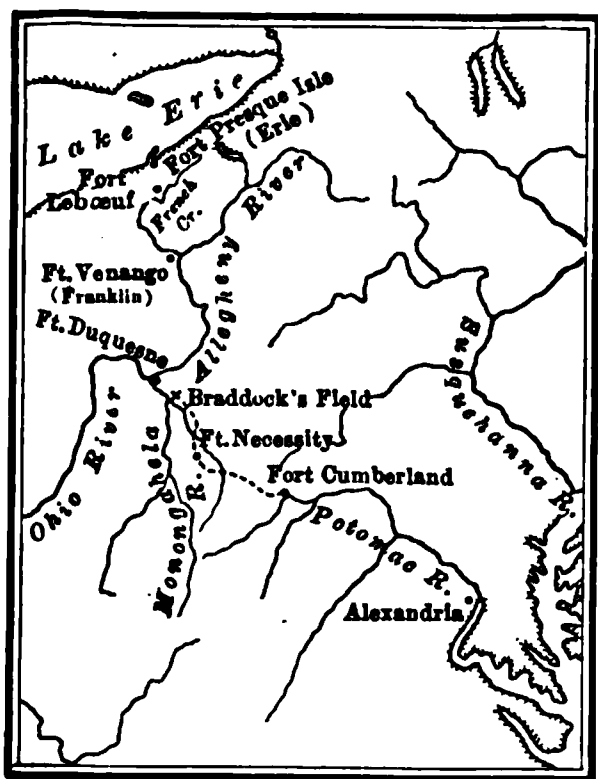
XV

THE STRUGGLE FOR A CONTINENT: THE FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR

The prize [the Mississippi basin] contended for was a noble one; a territory in its central watershed of more than a million square miles, and with its tributary areas of no less than two and a half millions. It is perhaps as fertile a space for its size as the globe shows and capable of supporting two hundred millions of people.—*Justin Winsor*.

78. The French Capture Fort Duquesne.—The presence of the French forts on the Allegheny River thoroughly alarmed the people of Virginia, the colony that had the strongest claim on the Ohio country. It was seen clearly enough that if the French should gain possession of the “Forks of the Ohio”—the junction of the Allegheny and Monongahela—the Virginians would be shut out of the Ohio valley completely, for these Forks were the natural gateway to the West. So in 1753 the governor of Virginia, Dinwiddie, sent a message to the commander of the fort at Leboeuf informing him that the French were trespassing upon English property and that they must abandon the newly built forts. The bearer of the message was *George Washington*. This greatest of all Americans was born at Pope’s Creek, Northumberland County, Virginia, February 22, 1732. In 1743 Augustine Washington, the father of George, suddenly died, leaving a widow and five children. The Washington family owned plenty of land but had very little money, and it was desirable that George should begin as soon as possible to earn his own living. He was taken from school at the age of sixteen, when his education consisted of reading, writing, and arithmetic. He also possessed a little knowledge of surveying. The glimpses which we get of George’s school life show him to have been a sober-minded, industrious youth. His copy-books were models of neatness and accuracy. In one of his note-books is a list of rules of conduct. One of the rules is

this: "Labor to keep alive in your breast that little spark of celestial fire called Conscience." As a boy Washington was tall, active, and muscular, and could outwalk, outrun, and outride any of his companions. After finishing his studies Washington went beyond the Blue Ridge in the valley of the Shenandoah to survey the vast estate of his cousin Lord Fairfax.



The French forts and Braddock's campaign.

His work as a surveyor caused him to lead the rough life of the frontiersman. He was often wet and cold and hungry, and sometimes when he slept the only roof he had over his head was the stars. While in the wilderness beyond the mountains Washington foresaw that the English and the French were likely to fight for the possession of the Ohio valley, and he prepared himself for the coming struggle. He learned the art of war and took lessons in fencing and sword exercises. At the age of nineteen he was appointed

adjutant-general with the rank of major. So, in selecting young Washington to bear the message to the French governor, Dinwiddie really chose about the most competent and suitable messenger that could have been found in all Virginia.

The French commander received Washington kindly, but refused to give up the forts and politely hinted that it would be well if Governor Dinwiddie would attend to his own business. This reply meant, of course, that if the English wanted the Ohio country they would have to fight for it, and this the Virginians at once prepared to do. The first thing to be done was to gain possession of the Forks of the Ohio. For this purpose Dinwiddie, late in 1753, sent a party of men, under Captain William Trent, to the Forks, with orders to build a log fort there. In the spring of 1754 Washington, with three hundred men, was sent to the Forks to help Trent build the fort. But before Washington could reach the place the French had driven Trent

away and had finished the fort and taken possession of it for themselves. They named the place Fort Duquesne, in honor of the governor of Canada. So, in the first movement to secure possession of the gateway to the West, the French had won and the Virginians had failed.

The capture of the Forks by the French did not concern the Virginians alone. The people of all the colonies and the people of England as well were disturbed by the movements of the French on the Ohio. For what did it mean to the colonists to have the French in control of the Ohio and its head waters? It meant a stunted growth for the colonies; it meant that the English power would never extend farther than the ridge of the Alleghany Mountains. And what did it mean to England herself to have France guarding the gateway to the West? It meant to England that, in the end, her rival would become the real mistress of all the country between the Appalachian and the Rocky Mountains, and this enormous increase of power would make France the most powerful nation on earth. No wonder, then, that Englishmen on both sides of the ocean demanded that the French be driven from Fort Duquesne.

79. The Albany Congress.—The French could be most easily driven out if the colonies would unite their forces, for in union there is strength. But at this time there was no union between the colonies. Each colony was quite independent of all the others. Maryland acted as if Pennsylvania were not in the world, and Pennsylvania acted as if Maryland were not in the world. Yet both colonies were equally interested in checking the French power. In 1754 an attempt was made to form a union between the colonies. A Congress composed of twenty-f

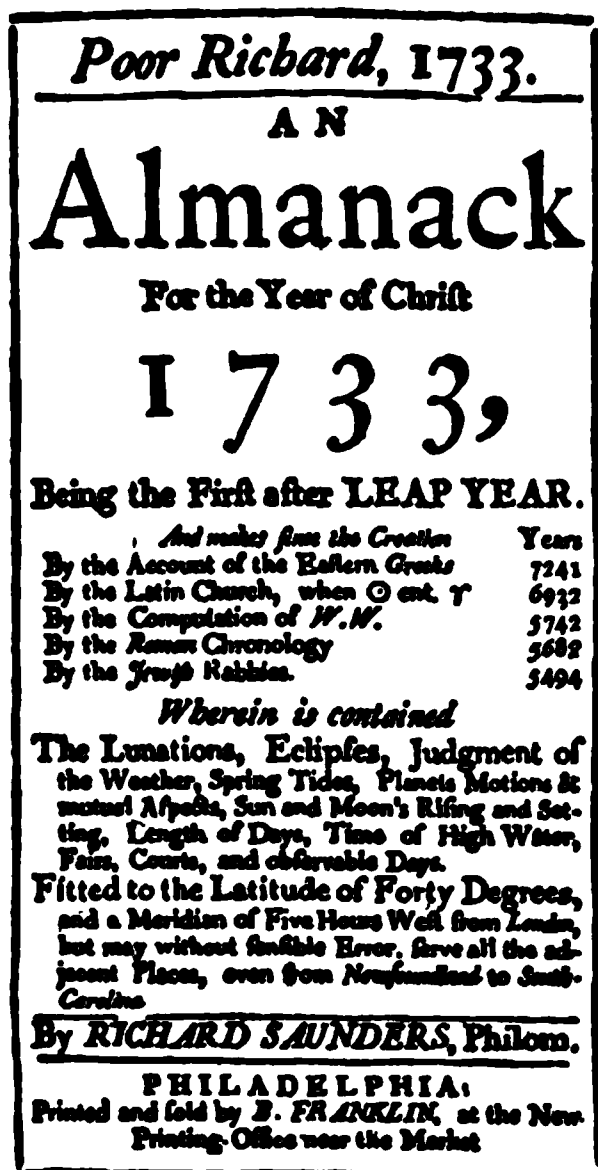


Benjamin Franklin.

Born at Boston, Massachusetts, in 1706; received the Copley medal for his experiments in electricity; assisted in drawing up the Declaration of Independence; concluded a treaty with France recognizing the independence of the United States; president of Pennsylvania; died in 1790.

representing seven

colonies, met at Albany to consider a plan of union. A plan was drawn up by Benjamin Franklin. This great leader was born in Boston in 1706. At the age of ten he was compelled to begin work as a candle-maker in his father's shop. But candle-making was not to his taste, so at the age of twelve he began to learn the



Title-page of the first issue of "Poor Richard's Almanack."

art of printing. After learning his trade he went to Philadelphia, where he established himself in business as a printer. In 1732 he began to publish "Poor Richard's Almanack," which became celebrated for its homely wisdom and witty sayings. But Franklin was not content to work only at his trade. He took a lively interest in public affairs and devoted much time to education and science. In 1733 he laid the foundations of an institution which later developed into the University of Pennsylvania. He invented a new kind of stove, and in 1752, by a simple experiment with a kite, showed that lightning is a discharge of electricity. In 1737 he was made postmaster of Philadelphia, and in 1753 was appointed deputy postmaster-general of all the colonies.

So when Franklin came forward at Albany with a plan for uniting the colonies, he was already widely known as a philosopher and as a statesman.

Franklin's plan of union was adopted by the Congress, but nothing came of it, for the reason that neither the colonies nor England liked it. Nevertheless this "Albany Plan" may be regarded as the *second* step¹ in that series that finally led up to the formation of a firm and lasting American Union.

80. The Defeat of General Braddock.—While these fruitless

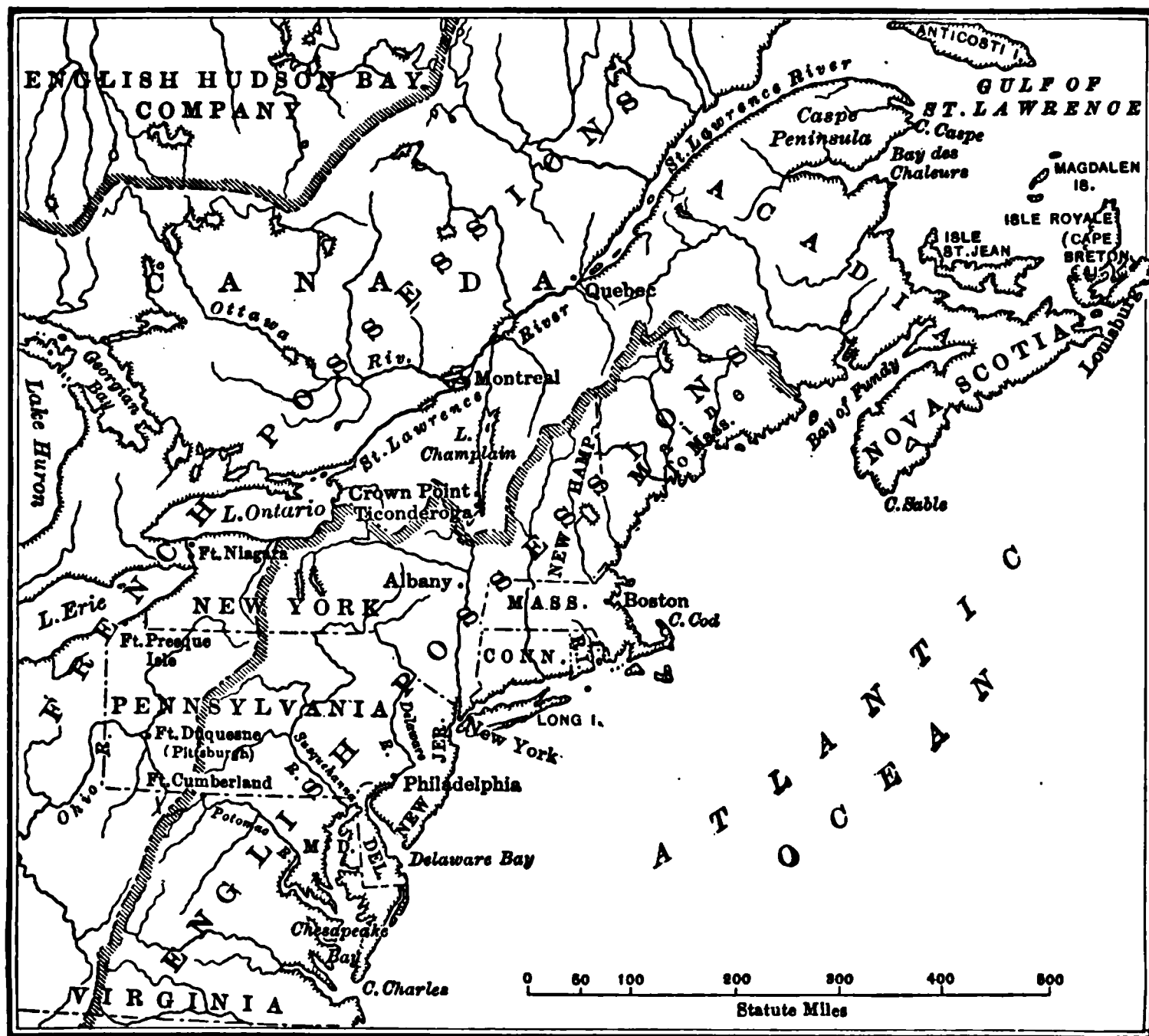
¹The formation of the New England Confederation (p. 60) was the first step.

efforts for union were being made, England was preparing for war. In 1755 General Braddock, with two thousand British soldiers, was sent to Virginia with orders to march against Fort Duquesne. At Alexandria eight hundred Virginians joined him. Washington was made a member of Braddock's staff and was given the rank of major. The army followed the Potomac to the point where the city of Cumberland now stands. Here it entered the great forest. Three hundred axmen cleared the way for the army, but the forward movement was very slow. In eight days the army covered only thirty miles. On the morning of July 9, when within a few miles of Fort Duquesne, the British were suddenly surprised by French and Indians. Washington explained to Braddock that the enemy would fight from behind rocks and trees, and that the English would have to fight in the same way. But Braddock was as obstinate as he was brave, and he would not listen to this young major. He persisted in fighting in the open, and his soldiers in their bright scarlet coats were mowed down by the lurking foe like a field of poppies. Nearly eight hundred of his men were killed or wounded, while the enemy lost scarcely fifty. He himself was shot through the lungs, and in a few days died. Washington during the battle was calm and self-possessed. Four bullets were sent through his clothing and two horses were killed under him, yet he escaped unhurt. When Braddock fell, Washington took charge of the troops and led them out of the trap into which they had fallen. If the young major had not rescued them, every one of the soldiers would doubtless have been killed or captured.

81. The French and Indian War.—The disastrous defeat of Braddock occurred while England and France were yet at peace, but in 1756 England formally declared war upon France, and then the French and Indian War¹ began in earnest. The English government at the outset of the struggle planned to do four things: (1) to gain the mastery of the seacoast by the

¹It was called the French and Indian War because the Indians—excepting the Iroquois, who were on the side of the English—were generally found on the side of France.

recapture of Louisburg (p. 101) and by seizing the French forts in Acadia (Nova Scotia and New Brunswick); (2) to take Fort Duquesne; (3) to take the French fort at Niagara; (4) to



Scene of the French and Indian War.

take Crown Point, on Lake Champlain, and move northward from that point and capture Quebec.

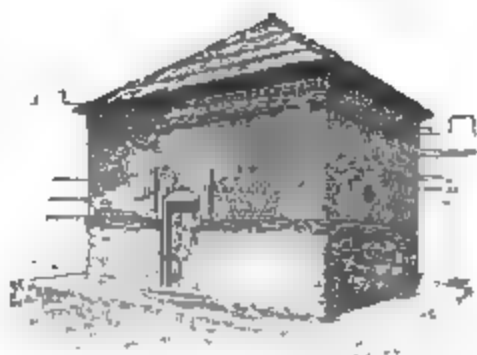
In June, 1755, the English sailed into the Bay of Fundy and captured the French forts on the neck of land which connects Nova Scotia with the mainland. This isthmus, with the country round about, was usually known as Acadia. The Acadians were simple, peaceable farmers, but they were a headstrong folk, and they would not acknowledge their English captors as their masters. So the English determined to rid the land of them. One day (September 5, 1755) when the people were in the churches at worship, soldiers appeared and seized the men, women, and

children—seven thousand in all—and hurried them aboard ships which carried them southward, scattering them along the coast all the way to North Carolina. Some of them were carried as far as Louisiana.¹

After the capture of Acadia the war dragged on and the English did little of importance until 1758, when William Pitt, one of England's great statesmen and a warm friend of the colonies, took charge of affairs. Pitt gave new life to the war. He pushed the conquest of Nova Scotia, and in a few months the great fortress of Louisburg was again in the hands of the English, and the gateway of the St. Lawrence was closed upon the French.

In 1758 also the English finished another of the four great things they had planned to do—the taking of Fort Duquesne. General Forbes, assisted by troops from Pennsylvania and Virginia, marched forth to make a second attack upon this important stronghold. At the head of the Virginians, clad in their fringed leather hunting-shirts, was Washington, now raised to the rank of colonel. The army was prepared for fierce fighting, but when the fort was reached it was a heap of smoking ruins. The French set it on fire and abandoned it. It passed into the hands of the English without a blow, and was named Fort Pitt (now Pittsburgh), in honor of the man who was doing so much for the success of the war.

Pitt caused one victory to follow fast upon the heels of another. In July, 1759, Sir William Johnson of western New York, who lived among the Indians and was their leader, moved against the fort at Niagara and captured it. Three of the great things the English had planned to do had now been done: the seaboard had been won, and Fort Duquesne and Fort Niagara had been captured. Pitt had spread his net wisely and was fast closing in on his game.



The blockhouse at Pittsburgh.

All that remains of the original redoubt of Fort Pitt. In 1894 this house and the ground on which it stands came into possession of the Pittsburgh chapter of the Daughters of the American Revolution.

¹ Read Longfellow's "Evangeline."

The capture of Duquesne and Niagara entirely cut off the French in Canada from the Ohio valley, and the capture of



Marquis de Montcalm.

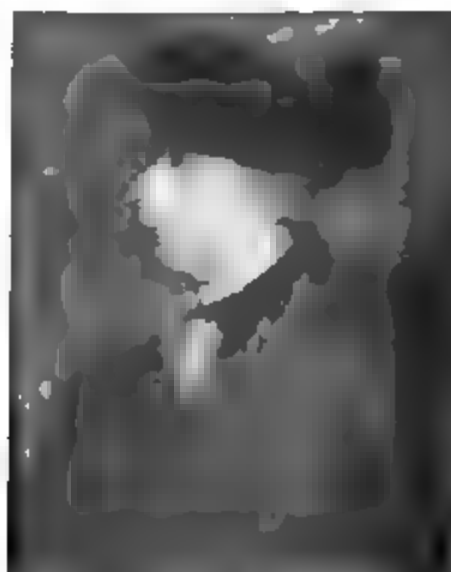
Born in France, in 1712, commanded the French forces in Canada, was defeated and mortally wounded at the battle of Quebec, in 1759.

Louisburg cut them off from the sea. About the time Johnson was attacking Niagara, General Amherst, with a large army, moved upon Crown Point, but when he reached the fort the French had fled. It had been planned that he should proceed northward and assist General Wolfe in taking Quebec, but he failed to do this, and Wolfe moved against the fortress alone. All the world knows of the dangerous and brave assault he made and of the glory of his success. In the dead of night, at the head of his men, he clambered up the rocky steps that led to the fortress, and when the sun rose he had five thousand troops drawn up in battle array on the Plains of Abraham (September 13, 1759). Here he faced Montcalm, a general as brave as himself. The battle was severe and bloody. Both generals were killed. Wolfe, while in the agonies of death, heard some one say: "They fly! They fly!" "Who fly?" said Wolfe. "The French," was the reply. "Then I die happy," said the general. Montcalm also was calm and great to the last. When he was told that his wound was mortal and that he could live only a few hours, he answered: "So much the better; I shall not live to see the surrender of Quebec." He died before the city surrendered.

82. The Treaty of 1763.—With the surrender of Quebec to

Louisburg cut them off from the sea.

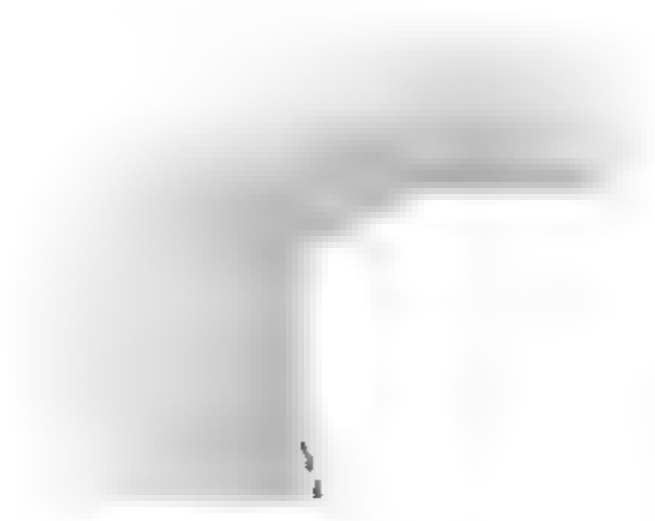
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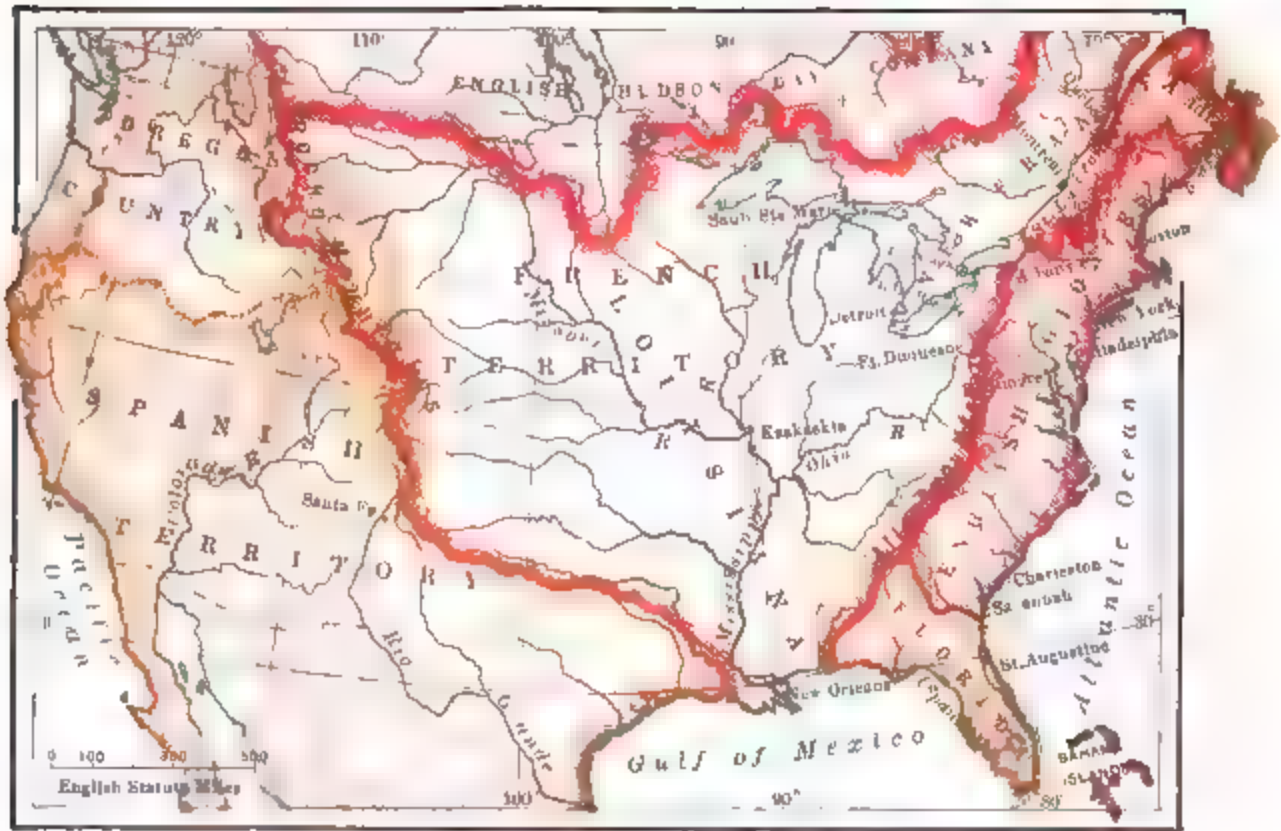


James Wolfe.

Born at Westerham, Kent, England, in 1727; appointed brigadier-general in 1758, took part in the capture of Louisburg in 1758; killed at Quebec, September 13, 1759.

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BEFORE THE FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR



AFTER THE FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR

the English (September 17, 1759) the French and Indian War practically came to an end.¹ And a sad end it was for the French. By the great treaty of Paris, signed in 1763, France lost every foot of land she had in North America, excepting only two insignificant islands—Miquelon and St. Pierre—in the Gulf of St. Lawrence. Her possessions west of the Mississippi went to Spain, and those east of the Mississippi went to England.

QUESTIONS ON THE TEXT

1. Sketch the early life of George Washington. Give an account of the efforts of the French and of the English to gain possession of the Forks of the Ohio. Why were the English alarmed at the loss of the Forks?
2. Give an account of the Albany Congress. Sketch the life of Benjamin Franklin as far as the year 1754.
3. Give an account of the defeat of General Braddock.
4. In the French and Indian War what was the English plan of campaign? Give an account of the capture of Acadia and of Louisburg. Describe the capture of Fort Duquesne. When and by whom was Fort Niagara taken? Give an account of the capture of Quebec.
5. What were the terms of the treaty of 1763?

REVIEW AND READING REFERENCES

1. Dates: 1609, 1682 (2), 1689 (2), 1733.
2. Places: Genoa, New Amsterdam, Quebec, New Orleans.
3. Persons: De Soto, Magellan, Virginia Dare, Penn, Bacon, Andros, Champlain, Marquette, La Salle.
4. Tell what you can about: the Invincible Armada; the founding of Maryland; Bacon's Rebellion; King Philip's War; slavery in the colonies in 1700; the Frontier Line in 1700; in 1740; the Germans in Pennsylvania; the Scotch-Irish; the settlement of the Shenandoah valley; King William's War; Queen Anne's War; King George's War.
5. Topics: Virginia moves to the Ohio: 20, 39-47. The British Lion roused: 14, 111-112. Washington's first campaign, Braddock's defeat: 3, 103-105. General Braddock: 20, 48-71. The fall of Quebec: 11, 63-76; also 5, 4-5, 450. Pontiac: 10, 53-114; also 20, 80-90.

¹ *Pontiac's Conspiracy*.—The Indians in the districts that were transferred from the French to the English disliked their new masters, and a conspiracy was soon formed to massacre all the Englishmen west of the Alleghanies. The leader of the movement was Pontiac, a chief of the Ottawa Indians. The conspiracy resulted in the death of many settlers, but Pontiac was defeated and was at last compelled (in 1766) to yield to the English power.

XVI

THE MOTHER COUNTRY AND THE COLONIES QUARREL

My Lords, you have no right to tax America. The natural rights of man and the immutable laws of nature are all with that people.—*Lord Camden* in the English House of Lords (1775).

83. The Quarrel about Taxation.—It was a great day for England when Quebec was captured and the French power in America was broken. It was a great day also for the English colonies in America, for, with the French out of the way, the colonists could enjoy peace on the northern borders and could go ahead with their plans for opening up the country beyond the Alleghanies. After the French and Indian War, therefore, England and her colonies ought to have been closer together than they had ever been before; as a matter of fact, however, after that war they were further apart. The ink on the treaty of Paris (1763) was hardly dry before there arose between England and her colonies a bitter quarrel, and this quarrel led to a bitter war.

The quarrel arose over the matter of taxation. At the close of the French and Indian War the English government found itself very heavily in debt and hard pressed for money, and in casting about for means of raising money it naturally turned to the American colonies. These colonies, said the king and Parliament, are protected by England at a great expense, and they must help to pay for the cost of that protection; they must pay a share of the taxes. There was certainly nothing unfair in this; and if the English government had gone about raising the money in a way that seemed to the Americans to be fair, the taxes would probably have been paid. But it did not do this. In its efforts to collect the money the English government acted so unwisely that it seemed to the Americans to be acting unfairly and unjustly.

The first unwise thing the English government did was to

issue what were called "writs of assistance." At this time there was a great deal of smuggling—that is to say, foreign goods that ought to have paid taxes were brought into the colonies in a secret manner, and the government was cheated out of its revenue. A writ of assistance was a general search-warrant that enabled revenue officers to enter private houses and search for smuggled goods. It did not name the person whose house was to be searched, and it did not describe the goods. With such a writ, an officer could enter any house he pleased and turn things upside down with his searching. The writ of assistance was bound to be very unpopular, for an Englishman looks upon the home as a castle which must not be entered without the consent of the owner. The writs were clearly against English notions of liberty, and they caused deep resentment. In Massachusetts they were opposed by James Otis with such eloquence and power that his speech against them was regarded as the "opening gun" of the Revolution, for America was now on the eve of a revolution.



A stamp.

But far worse than the writs of assistance was the hateful Stamp Act which Parliament passed in 1765. This law undertook to compel the colonists to place government stamps on commercial and legal documents such as promissory notes, deeds, mortgages, and wills, and also on such publications as newspapers, pamphlets, and almanacs. The stamps were to be sold at prices varying from a half penny (one cent) to ten pounds (fifty dollars). Newspapers and almanacs that were not properly stamped were not to be circulated or sold, and legal documents without the stamps were to have no value.

84. Resistance to the Stamp Act; its Repeal.—When the news reached America, in 1765, that the Stamp Act was to be put into effect immediately, the colonists at once began to fight it. In Boston the stamp commissioner—the officer who was to sell the stamps—was hung in effigy and his office torn down. In New York the act was reprinted in pamphlet form and was sold in the streets under the title, "The Folly of England and the

Ruin of America." In Massachusetts Otis lifted his voice against the act, and in Virginia Patrick Henry hurried through the Assembly a resolution which declared that the people of Virginia need not pay taxes that were not ordered to be paid by their chosen representatives.

But the most powerful protest against the Stamp Act was the Stamp Act Congress, which met in New York in October, 1765, and which was the *third* step in the formation of our Union. This Congress was composed of delegates from nine colonies—Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, New



Patrick Henry.

Born in Virginia, in 1736; admitted to the bar in 1760; member of House of Burgesses and leader of revolutionary agitation in Virginia; governor of Virginia, 1776-79 and 1784-86; died in 1797.

Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, and South Carolina. After discussing the subject for three weeks the Congress declared—and sent copies of the declaration to the king and Parliament—that the colonies could not be taxed internally unless they were represented in the British Parliament, and then went on to express the opinion that it was impossible for the colonies to be represented in the British Parliament. This was as much as to say that Parliament had no right to tax the colonies at all.¹ And that is what the colonists really meant.

Parliament soon learned that it was useless to try to enforce the Stamp Act, so the measure was speedily (in 1766) repealed. But, along with the repeal, Parliament made a declaration to the effect that it had a perfect right to tax the colonies if it so desired. Such a declaration was unnecessary and unwise, but it was forgotten in the general rejoicing which followed the repeal of the stamp law.

85. The Townshend Acts.—But the repeal of the Stamp Act did not settle the question that had been raised, for the very next year Parliament passed what were known as the Townshend Acts, which provided that taxes should be imposed on

¹ The colonies at first did not deny that England had the right to collect taxes on foreign goods coming into American ports.

glass, paper, lead, paints, and *tea*, when these articles were brought into American ports. The money raised by these taxes was to be spent by England in paying the salaries of governors, judges, and other colonial officers. Here was trouble indeed, for while the colonists did not object outright to paying taxes on imported goods, they did object to Parliament fixing the salaries of colonial officers and then levying taxes with which to pay these salaries. This objection made the Townshend Acts as hateful as the Stamp Act had been. Samuel Adams of Massachusetts wrote and sent to King George a petition asking that the acts be repealed. When he had finished the document his daughter remarked that it would soon be touched by the royal hand. "More likely, my dear," he replied, "it will be spurned by the royal foot." Adams knew the king only too well. George III was not disposed to listen to petitions from the colonists; he intended to rule them with a rod of iron if he could. "We shall grant nothing to America," said one of the king's ministers, "except what they may ask with a halter about their necks."

The colonists did not think of giving up the struggle simply because their petitions were spurned. They threw all their strength against the enforcement of the Townshend Acts, and forced Parliament (in 1770) to take off the taxes on all the articles except *tea*. This was retained as a matter of principle. Parliament was growing more and more anxious to show the colonists that it had a right to tax them if it desired to do so. The colonists resisted the tax on tea as a matter of principle. It was a very light tax (six cents a pound), it is true, but the Americans saw clearly enough that if Parliament, by way of taxation, could take a penny from their pockets it could just as easily take a pound.



Samuel Adams.

Born in Massachusetts, in 1722; delegate and member of the Continental Congress; signed the Declaration of Independence; governor of Massachusetts, 1794-97; died in 1803.

86. The Boston Massacre.—On the day that Parliament was



The Boston Massacre.

From a print "Engraved, Printed, and Sold by Paul Revere."

voting to keep the tax on the tea, there occurred in Boston another event which widened the breach between England and her colonies. This was a shooting affair called the Boston Massacre. For several years George III had kept British troops stationed at Boston, and the presence of the redcoats was very displeasing to the citizens. The conduct of the soldiers finally led to a clash between them and the citizens. One night (March 5, 1770) a crowd gathered around a soldier who was on guard in front of the custom-house and began to pelt him. A file of nine soldiers hurried to the aid of their comrade. The crowd stood its ground and threw snowballs at the soldiers and dared them to fire. They fired and killed four men.

87. The Colonists Refuse to Pay the Tax on Tea.—When the news went out through the colonies that the king's soldiers were shooting innocent citizens in the streets of Boston, the Americans were thrown into a fighting mood. As for the tax

on tea, they said they would pay no tax, for they would drink no tea. But the king tried to force the tea down their throats. He so arranged matters that if the colonists would only buy their tea from London they could pay the tax and still get the tea cheaper than they could get it anywhere else. But the colonists did not want the tea at any price if they had to pay the tax. In 1773 ships loaded with tea arrived at Charleston, New York, Philadelphia, and Boston. The ships bound for New York and Philadelphia turned back without landing their cargoes. In Charleston the tea was landed, and stored in vaults. Several years later it was sold by the authority of South Carolina and the money was paid into the State treasury. In Boston the people determined that the tea should not be landed, and, in order to make this sure, a band of men dressed as Indians boarded the vessels containing the tea and threw overboard the contents of three hundred chests. At Annapolis the citizens compelled a rich merchant to set fire to his own ship which was loaded with tea.

88. The "Intolerable Acts."—The throwing overboard of the tea at Boston angered England more than anything the colonists had yet done. Petitions and protests and fiery speeches



Destruction of the tea in Boston Harbor.

could do but little harm, but the wanton destruction of property was a serious thing. Parliament quickly resolved to bring the "Boston rebels" to their senses. It passed what the Americans called the "Intolerable Acts": (1) no ship should enter or leave

the port of Boston until the town should pay for the tea; (2) Massachusetts should be deprived of free government; (3) any



Franklin's device,
"Join or Die."

The head of the snake is New England, and the other pieces are marked with the initials of the other colonies.

person indicted in Massachusetts for murder or other capital crime because of anything done by him in executing the revenue laws, suppressing riots, or performing his duties as a magistrate, might, in case a fair trial could not be secured in Massachusetts, be tried in another colony or in Great Britain; (4) troops should be quartered in Boston. These four acts,

Parliament thought, would starve and beat Massachusetts into submission.

89. The Colonies Stand Together.—It was the idea of the English government that Massachusetts would have to fight her battles alone, but in this England was mistaken. The colonies were all on the side of the Bostonians. Virginia especially proved to be a warm friend. "If need be," said Washington, "I will raise one thousand men, subsist them at my own expense, and march myself at their head for the relief of Boston." The spirit of Virginia was the spirit of all the colonies from New Hampshire to Georgia. No colony was going to stand idly by and see another colony crushed.

QUESTIONS ON THE TEXT

1. Why did England after the French and Indian War undertake to tax the colonies? What were the writs of assistance? What was the Stamp Act?
2. In what way did the colonists show their opposition to the Stamp Act? What was the Stamp Act Congress?
3. What were the Townshend Acts? Why was the tax on tea not repealed?
4. Give an account of the Boston Massacre.
5. In what way did the colonists resist the payment of the tax on tea?
6. What were the Intolerable Acts?
7. What colony was strong in her support of the Bostonians?

REVIEW AND READING REFERENCES

1. Dates: 1522, 1607, 1643, 1682 (2), 1754, 1763.
2. Places: Genoa, St. Augustine, New Amsterdam, Quebec (2), New Orleans.
3. Persons: Cabot, Drake, Calvert, Hudson, Champlain, Marquette, La Salle, Washington,¹ Braddock, Franklin, Wolfe.
4. Tell what you can about: the New England Confederation; the founding of Pennsylvania; Bacon's Rebellion; King Philip's War; the Frontier Line in 1700; in 1740; the Germans in Pennsylvania; the Scotch-Irish; the settlement of the Shenandoah valley; King William's War; Queen Anne's War; King George's War; Fort Duquesne; the Albany Congress; the treaty of 1763.
5. Topics: The quarrel about Taxation: 13, 15-25. The Boston Massacre: 13, 72-75. The Boston Tea-Party: 13, 79-83. The causes of the American Revolution: 11, 79-101.

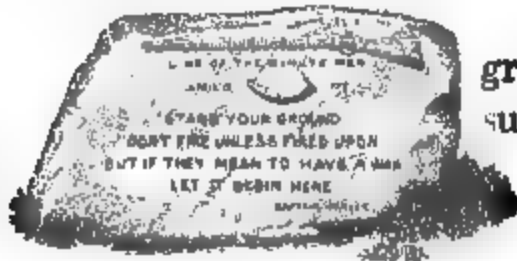
¹ Where the career of a person extends through many years, as in the case of Washington and Franklin, the review may be carried along from chapter to chapter, increasing in length as new facts are learned. The outlines found in the Index may be used to advantage when reviewing the lives of great men.

XVII

INDEPENDENCE DECLARED

I am not induced by motives of pride, party, or resentment to espouse the doctrine of separation and independence; I am clearly, positively, and conscientiously persuaded that it is the true interest of this continent to be so; that everything short of *that* is mere patchwork.

From *Paine's Common Sense*.



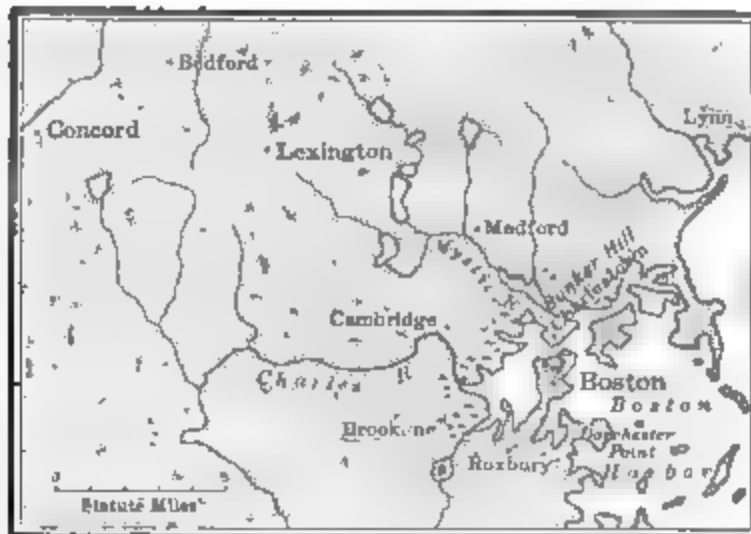
Boulder commemorating the battle of Lexington.

90. The First Continental Congress.—The king at once took measures to carry the Intolerable Acts into effect. General Gage was made governor of Massachusetts, and more soldiers were sent to Boston. The harbor of that city

was closed to all incoming and outgoing vessels. This harsh treatment led to the calling of a Congress—known as the First Continental Congress—which met at Philadelphia (September 5, 1774). At this Congress there were delegates from all the colonies except Georgia. Observe how the movement for union among the colonies was gaining strength. In the New England Confederation (p. 60) four colonies were represented; at the Albany Congress (p. 107) seven colonies; at the Stamp Act Congress nine colonies; in the First Continental Congress twelve colonies.

The First Continental Congress declared that no government had the right to deprive Americans of their life, liberty, or property, and asserted that the colonists had every right that an Englishman had. But the most important thing done by this Congress was to pass the following resolution of sympathy: "That this Congress approves the opposition of the inhabitants of Massachusetts to the execution of the late acts of Parliament, and if the same shall be attempted to be carried into execution by force, in such case all America ought to support them in their opposition."

91. Fighting Begins: Lexington; Concord.—The country was not long in finding out that England intended to use force in dealing with Massachusetts. By the end of 1774 Gage was throwing up fortifications around Boston, and the streets of the town were resounding with the clangor of British arms. The Americans in the meanwhile were preparing to meet force with force. In the towns around Boston companies and regiments of colonists



Lexington and Concord.

were forming and men were being drilled for active warfare. Before the winter of 1775 had passed, eastern Massachusetts was bristling with armed troops.

The ringleaders on the American side in Massachusetts were Samuel Adams and John Hancock. Gage received orders that these two men should be arrested and sent to England for trial. About the time they were wanted they were staying at the house of a friend in Lexington, a town a few miles out of Boston. On the night of the 18th of April, 1775, Gage sent out from Boston 800 men to Lexington to arrest Adams and Hancock, giving orders that after the arrest they should march on to Concord and seize some ammunition that was stored there. The British undertook to do everything in secret, but the eyes of the Americans were on them. As soon as it was known that the troops had started, a light in the belfry of the North Church flashed the news to Paul Revere in Charlestown. Revere took horse and galloped to Lexington, shouting as he went that the British were approaching. At Lexington he informed Adams and Hancock and the patriots escaped arrest.

When the British reached Lexington at daybreak the people in arms. Fifty minute-men—men ready to



The battle of Concord.

This is the oldest authentic picture of the scene, an engraving by Amos Doolittle, from a drawing by Ralph Earl, published in New Haven, Connecticut, a few months after the battle. The British are on the right of the bridge, the Americans on the left.

minute's notice—were drawn up in battle array on the village green. "Disperse, ye villains," shouted Major Pitcairn, the British officer. The minute-men did not move. Pitcairn's soldiers then fired, killing eight men and wounding ten. The minute-men, seeing the folly of resisting so great a force, dispersed.

At Concord the tables were turned. There the British had to face 400 minute-men, while other patriots were pouring in from every direction. The fighting took place at the Concord Bridge, where

"Once the embattled farmers stood
And fired the shot heard round the world."

In the battle the British soon had the worst of it and began to retreat to Boston. But the retreat was more disastrous than the pitched battle. All along the roadside minute-men from behind houses and trees and stone fences peppered the flying British, with such deadly results that by the time they reached Boston they had lost in killed and wounded nearly half their number.

92. Ticonderoga and Crown Point.—Everybody knew that a bloody struggle had now begun, and wherever a blow could be given, it was dealt. Benedict Arnold¹ saw that the Americans ought to have possession of Ticonderoga and Crown Point (map, p. 137), and he straightway marched against these forts. Their capture had also been planned by Ethan Allen, a dashing leader of the Green Mountain Boys of Vermont. Arnold and Allen, acting together, with a few troops, surprised Ticonderoga and demanded its surrender. The commander of the fort inquired of Allen by what authority he was acting. "In the name of the great Jehovah and the Continental Congress," replied Allen. The fort had but a handful of men and was compelled to surrender (May 10, 1775). The surrender of Crown Point quickly followed.

93. The Second Continental Congress.—On the very day that Ticonderoga was taken a second Continental Congress met at Philadelphia. This time *all* the colonies had sent delegates. In this Congress there were many of those great leaders who laid the foundations of our Republic. From Massachusetts came Adams and Hancock, who a few weeks before had slipped from the hands of the British; from New York, Robert Livingston and John Jay; from Pennsylvania, Benjamin Franklin; from Virginia, Washington and Patrick Henry and Richard Henry Lee.

The previous congresses had acted like debating societies; they had simply discussed questions and passed resolutions. But the Second Continental Congress began to act like a real government. It put itself into communication with foreign powers; it managed postal affairs; it took charge of the army that was gathering around Boston. Who was to be placed at the head of this army? The man chosen was sitting in the Congress in his uniform, a man whose lofty stature and noble bearing proclaimed him a king of men—George Washington. When the choice had been made, Washington rose and said the Congress desires, I will enter upon the moment to exert every power I possess in their service of the glorious cause."

¹ Born at Norwich, Connecticut, in 1741; died

94. Bunker Hill.—Washington hurried northward to the scene of his duties, but before he reached Boston great things



Boston and Bunker Hill.

had taken place there. A few weeks after the Lexington affair an army of 15,000 colonial troops, drawn up in the form of a great semicircle, was pressing in upon Boston with the purpose of compelling the British troops to take to their ships and leave the town. Both the Americans and the Brit-

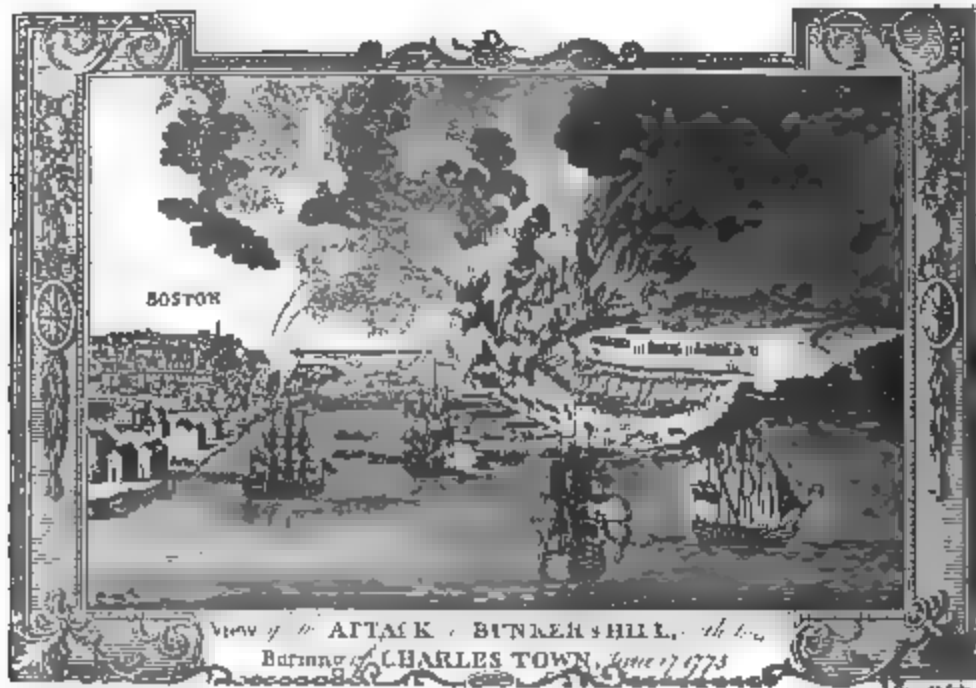
ish wanted to get possession of the hills around Boston, and on the night of the 15th of June, Colonel William Prescott, with 1200 Americans, made his way silently to Breed's Hill,¹ on the Charlestown peninsula (map, above), and began to throw up embankments. Early the next morning the British general, Howe, was on the spot with troops to drive the Americans from their position. Twice the British rushed up the hill, and twice they were driven back with terrible loss. A third attempt was made. By this time the Americans had exhausted their ammunition and could no longer hold their ground. They retreated to the mainland, leaving the British in possession of the field. Though the British won the battle, a few more such victories would have meant the destruction of their entire army, for they lost 1054 men, while the Americans' loss was only 449. Among the fallen British was that Pitcairn who had fired the first shot at Lexington. The Americans lost General Warren, one of the bravest of the leaders who had thus far stepped forward in defense of the American cause.

95. Washington in Charge of the American Army.—When Washington arrived in Boston he found an army that was raw

¹The Americans, in the darkness, mistook Breed's Hill for Bunker Hill, which they had intended to fortify and which gave its name to the battle.

and inexperienced, but the news of Bunker Hill assured him that it was an army that could fight. Among its officers were Daniel Morgan, Benedict Arnold, John Stark, Nathanael Greene, Henry Knox, and Israel Putnam. Washington took command at once and began the difficult task of preparing the undisciplined troops for regular fighting.

While Washington was drilling his army and providing it with ammunition and supplies, Richard Montgomery and Arnold undertook to capture Quebec. Montgomery advanced by way



The battle of Bunker Hill.

From an old print.

of Lake Champlain. Arnold led his men through the Maine wilderness. On the way, food gave out, and the hunger of the soldiers became such that they devoured their dogs. The two armies joined in the valley of the St. Lawrence and laid siege to Quebec (December 31, 1775). Montgomery was killed and Arnold was wounded. Quebec was not taken, and the expedition was a failure.

At the beginning of the spring of 1776 Washington had his army so well equipped and organized that he gave battle to the British in Boston. On he quietly fortified Dorchester Heights.

overlooked the city of Boston, and on the morning of the next day General Howe saw plainly that Washington could destroy with shells every British ship in the harbor. If the British



The committee of Congress reporting the Declaration of Independence.

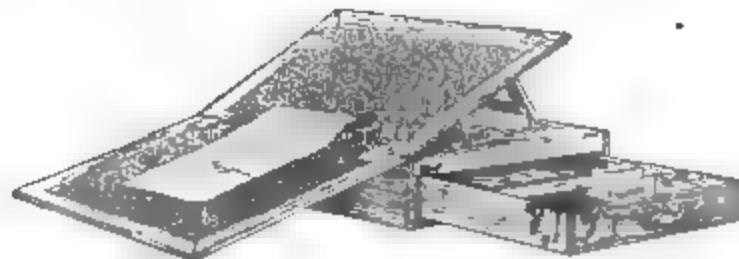
From the painting by Trumbull.

should attempt to carry the heights by storm they would probably suffer more than they had suffered at Bunker Hill, for the Americans now had plenty of ammunition. So Howe decided that the best thing to do was to put his men on board the ships and sail away. On March 17 the British army that had so long annoyed the Bostonians sailed out of the harbor, never to return. This was Washington's first stroke in the war, and it was a most successful stroke, for it rid New England of the presence of English troops.

96. The Declaration of Independence.—When the Americans began to oppose England they did not think of separating themselves from the English nation. Washington said, when he took command of the army (July, 1775), that he abhorred the idea of independence, and it is likely that at that time most Americans regarded their trouble with England as

only a family quarrel which would cease just as soon as the king and Parliament should begin to treat the colonies as the Americans thought they ought to be treated. But by the end of 1775 the colonists began to think of separation and independence. Several causes led to this state of mind: (1) Congress had sent a humble petition to the king asking for a redress of grievances, and the king had refused even to look at the petition; (2) in most of the battles that had occurred the Americans had shown that they could take care of themselves; (3) in January, 1776, Thomas Paine's "Common Sense" was published and scattered broadcast over the land, and the plain, simple arguments of the pamphlet in favor of independence influenced the minds of thousands; (4) George III, unable to secure troops at home, hired German soldiers (Hessians) to shoot down his American subjects.

By July, 1776, Congress felt sure that the American people were in favor of independence, and on the 2d of July it resolved "that these United Colonies are and of right ought to be free and independent States."



**Desk on which the Declaration of Independence
was written.**

From a drawing by Thomas Jefferson.

The task of writing a formal Declaration of Independence fell upon Thomas Jefferson, a tall, sandy-haired young man of thirty-three, who could "calculate an eclipse, survey an estate, tie an artery, plan an edifice, try a cause, break a horse, dance a minuet, and play the violin." Jefferson was also a master in the use of English. It has been said that, as Washington was the sword of the Revolution, so was Jefferson its pen. His draft of a Declaration of Independence was sent to Congress, and after undergoing a few trifling amendments, it was adopted on the 4th of July. The wild re-

Declaration was everywhere received proved beyond doubt that Congress had made no mistake. The American people desired independence, and for the sake of so great a prize they were willing to pledge "their lives, their fortunes, and their sacred honor."

QUESTIONS ON THE TEXT

1. What event, in 1774, showed that the movement for union among the colonies was growing stronger? What was done by the First Continental Congress?
2. Who were Samuel Adams and John Hancock? What attempts were made to arrest these men? Give an account of the fighting at Lexington and Concord.
3. Give an account of the capture of Ticonderoga and Crown Point.
4. Name some of the Revolutionary leaders. What was done by the Second Continental Congress?
5. Give an account of the battle of Bunker Hill.
6. Name some of the Revolutionary officers. Give an account of the march of Arnold and Montgomery upon Quebec. What caused the British to withdraw from Boston?
7. Name the causes that led the Americans to declare their independence. By whom was the Declaration of Independence written? When was it adopted? How was it received?

REVIEW AND READING REFERENCES

1. Dates: 1664, 1682, 1689, 1733, 1754, 1763.
2. Places: Jamestown, Providence, Quebec, New Orleans, Fort Duquesne.
3. Persons: Raleigh, Smith, Stuyvesant, Winthrop, Oglethorpe, Champlain, Marquette, La Salle, Washington, Franklin, Braddock, Wolfe.
4. Tell what you can about: the Jamestown colony; the Puritans; the founding of Georgia; Queen Anne's War; King George's War; Fort Duquesne; the Albany Congress; the French and Indian War; the treaty of 1763; the Stamp Act.
5. Topics: The battle of Lexington and Concord: 3, 144-146. The battle of Bunker Hill: 11, 102-118. Liberty Tree: 14, 141. Drafting the Declaration of Independence: 3, 147-149. Samuel Adams: 8, 51-56. John Adams: 8, 85-90. The Declaration of Independence: 15 (Vol. I), 3-23.

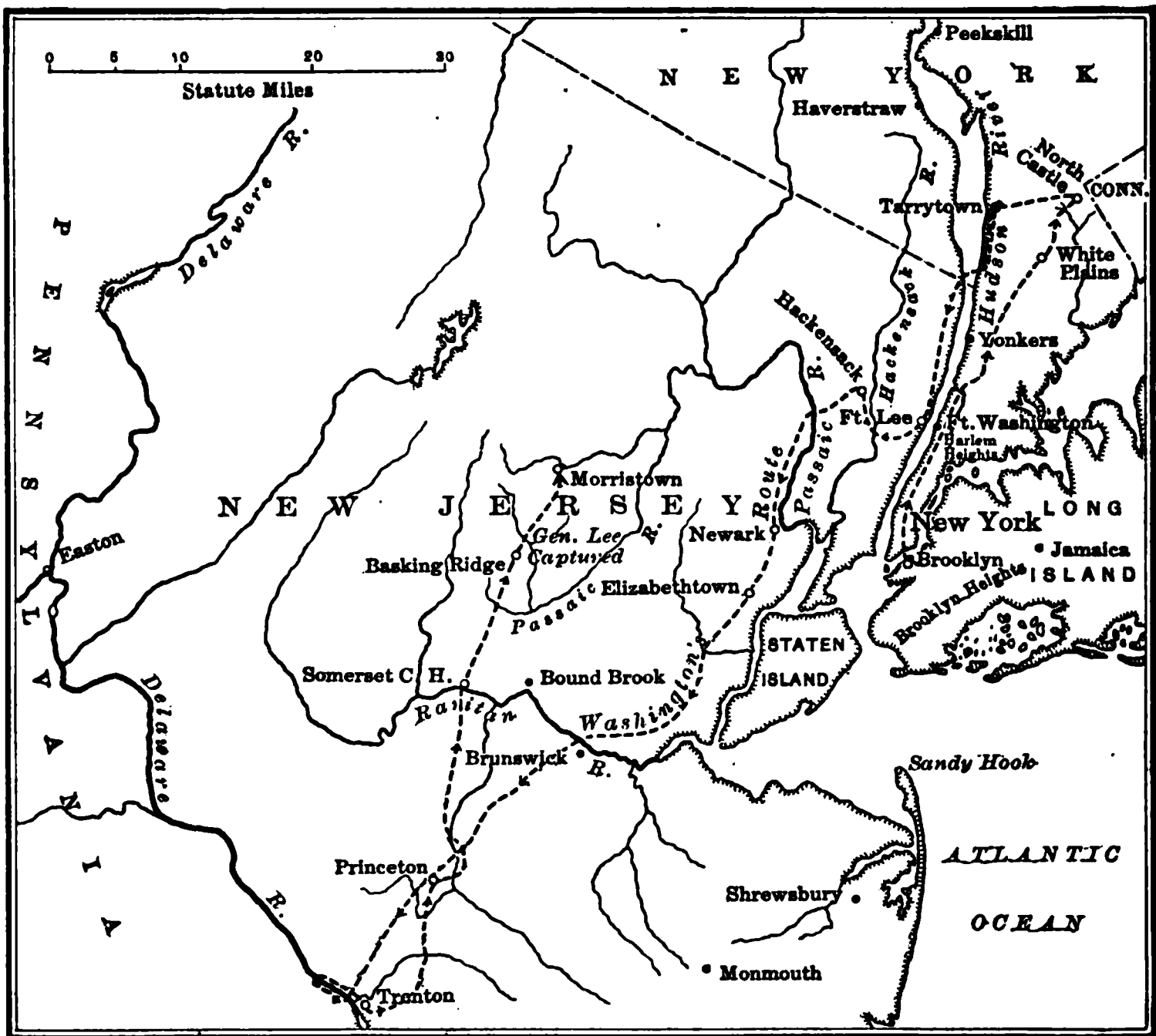
XVIII

THE STRUGGLE FOR INDEPENDENCE

If I were an American as I am an Englishman, while a foreign troop was landed in my country,
I never would lay down my arms—never! never! never!—*William Pitt.*

97. The British Plan of Campaign.—The people of New York were in the midst of rejoicings over the Declaration of Independence when a British army of 25,000 men, under General Howe, landed on Staten Island. It was the plan of the British, after they had been driven from Boston, to secure possession of the Hudson River region and thus to cut the colonies in twain. With the Hudson River and Lake Champlain in the hands of the British, New England could be prevented from joining forces with the colonies—or States, as we may now call them—toward the south. The British planned that Howe should take New York and gain control of the lower Hudson, while General Carleton was to come down from Canada, recapture Ticonderoga, and gain control of the Upper Hudson. The two armies were finally to meet at Albany.

98. The Battle of Long Island.—Washington had foreseen the British plan, and when Howe arrived in New York he found the American general already on the ground with 18,000 men, half of whom, under General Israel Putnam, were holding Brooklyn Heights. These heights commanded New York just as Dorchester Heights commanded Boston, and Howe saw that the first thing to do was to drive out Putnam. So he landed his army on Long Island and advanced upon the heights. Putnam sent down 5000 men to meet the British, and the battle of Long Island was fought (August 27, 1776). The Americans were outnumbered nearly four to one, and were badly beaten. After the battle Howe pushed on to take the heights, but was stopped by Washington, who, under cover of a foggy night, carried his men over to the New York side, and thus saved the clutches of the enemy.



Washington's movements in 1776.

Now there began a game of hare and hounds, the American army being the hare and the British army the hounds. Howe, having taken possession of the heights, at once advanced upon New York; after a sharp encounter at Harlem Heights, Washington moved up the Hudson to White Plains. He did not desire a pitched battle because he was so greatly outnumbered. Howe advanced to White Plains. Washington, after a sharp skirmish, retired first to North Castle and then to Hackensack, on the west side of the Hudson.

99. The Tories.—Washington found New York and New Jersey full of Tories—men who did not want independence and who took sides with the king. In every State there were some men of this class. The ships that carried Howe away from Boston had on board nine hundred Tories from Massachusetts. Alto-

gether about one fifth of the people of the States belonged to the Tory class. In the Middle States, however, the class was larger than it was in any other section, and the Tories around New York did what they could to annoy Washington and bring disaster upon the American cause.

100. Fort Washington and Fort Lee.—Washington, in the last months of 1776, besides being annoyed by the Tories, was made to suffer for the blunders of Congress and the bad faith of one of his own generals. Just above New York on opposite sides of the Hudson the Americans held two forts, Fort Washington and Fort Lee. When Washington saw that the garrison at Fort Washington would be unable to prevent the British from passing up the river, he ordered the fort to be abandoned. But Congress ordered the fort to be held. General Greene, the commander, obeyed Congress. Howe stormed the fort (November 12) and captured 3000 Americans. After the capture the Hessians murdered some of the prisoners in cold blood. Washington witnessed this outrage through his spy-glass from Fort Lee, and it is said that when he saw his brave soldiers thus slaughtered, "his overwrought heart could bear it no longer, and he cried and sobbed like a child." The surrender of Fort Lee rapidly followed the surrender of Fort Washington.

The loss of the forts was followed by a disastrous act of disobedience on the part of General Charles Lee. This officer had been left at North Castle with 7000 men. Washington sent messenger after messenger to Lee, ordering him to throw his army across the Hudson and join the army of the commander-in-chief in New Jersey. But Lee refused to move until it was too late. When at last he did move he was captured by the British and made a prisoner.

101. Battles of Trenton and Princeton.—The British were now in complete possession of the Hudson, and Washington was forced to beat a retreat across New Jersey, Howe following close upon his heels. On December 8 Washington crossed the Delaware River at Trenton. As his last boat passed over, Howe's army came up, but it could not cross, for Washington on the march had destroyed everything that could float. It was

gloomy time for the Americans when Washington lay with his little army of 3000 men opposite Trenton. "Ten days more," he wrote (December 20, 1776) to Congress, "will put an end to the existence of our army." Yet before ten days had passed he had struck the British a fearful blow. On Christmas night, when the river was full of floating ice, he recrossed the Delaware and the next day surprised the enemy at Trenton and took a thousand prisoners. The British general, Cornwallis, rushed to the scene with a large force. Reaching Trenton at night, he waited until the next day for battle. But he was sure Washington was at his mercy. "At last," he said, "we have run down the old fox and will bag him in the morning." But in the morning Washington

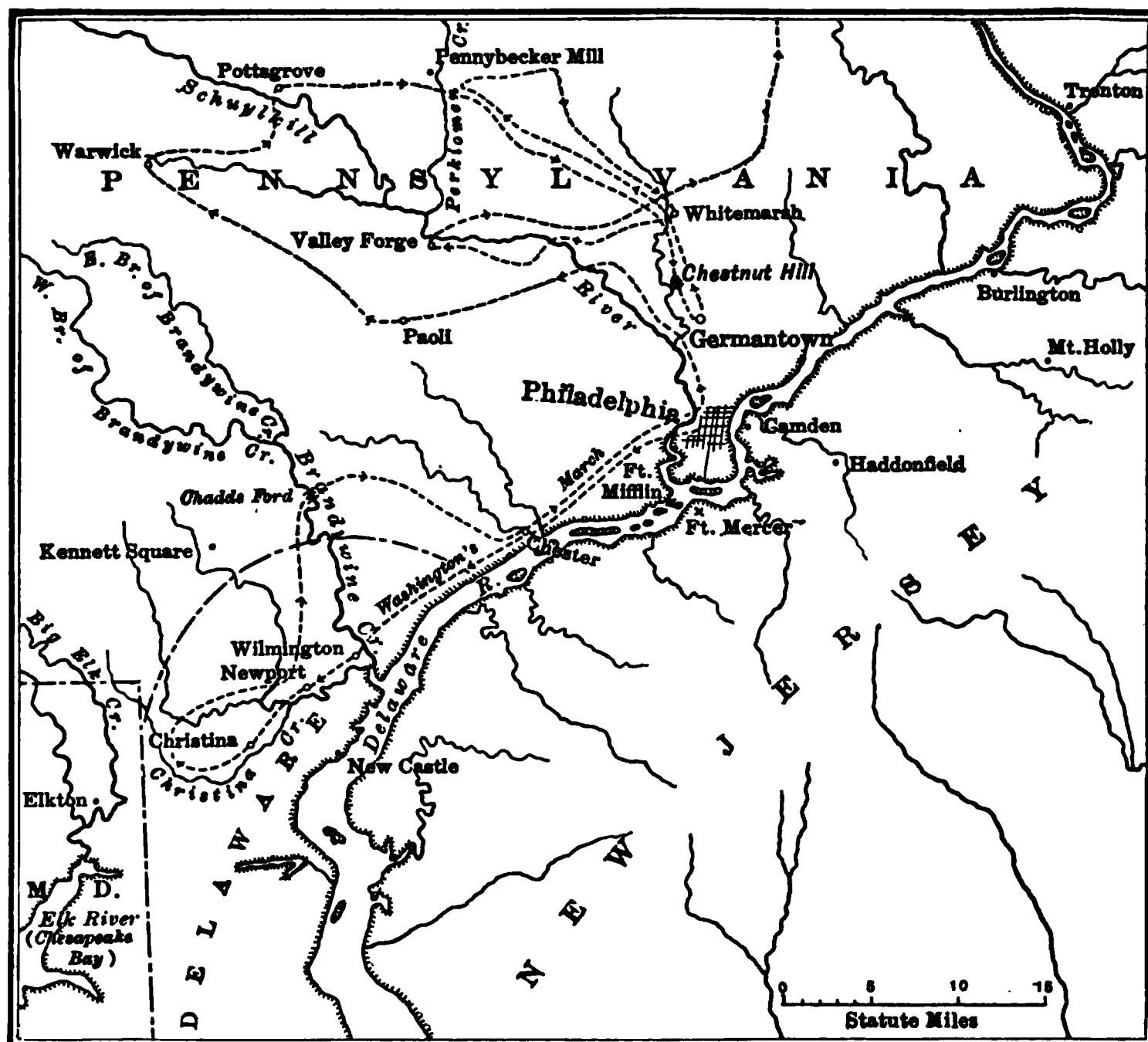


Where Washington made his famous crossing of the Delaware.

The covered bridge is modern.

was gone. A few days later he met the army of Cornwallis in battle at Princeton, and the British were put to flight. Washington now moved northward to Morristown, where he found a safe retreat and where he passed the winter. There had been a hard chase for six months, but the hare had not been caught.

102. The British Capture the American Capital City, Philadelphia.—Washington's plan now was to watch Howe closely, annoy him in every way possible, and prevent him from joining the army that was about to march into northern New York from Canada. In June, 1777, Howe started across New Jersey with a large army to take Philadelphia, the home of Congress and



Washington's movements in 1777.

the capital of the new-born nation—the United States. He did not go far before he found Washington's army standing squarely in his path. Howe now thought it prudent to return to New York and go to Philadelphia by water. He embarked his troops on a fleet and, finding the Delaware too well guarded, sailed up the Chesapeake Bay and landed near Elkton, in Maryland. Washington had followed Howe's movements and was close at hand when the landing was made. At Chadds Ford, on the Brandywine, he gave battle (September 11, 1777) to the British, but was compelled to leave the field to the enemy. Howe now entered Philadelphia with his army. Congress took alarm and fled to Lancaster. Howe stationed his main army a few miles north of Philadelphia at Germantown. Here Washington again attacked the British (October 4, 1777), but again he was com-

pelled to retreat. After hovering around Howe for several weeks Washington went into winter quarters at Valley Forge.



The attack on the Chew house in the battle of Germantown.

103. Burgoyne's Invasion of New York; Saratoga.—

While Washington was giving his attention to Howe in New Jersey and Pennsylvania, the British were going ahead with their plans for invading New York from Canada. In the summer of 1777, General John Burgoyne, who had taken the place of General Carleton,

sailed up Lake Champlain, surprised Ticonderoga, and captured it with almost as little ceremony as Ethan Allen had used two years before. This was a good beginning for the British, but fortune soon ceased to smile upon them. Schuyler, the American commander at the North, had removed all the cattle and provisions along Burgoyne's line of march and had felled trees and destroyed bridges so as to obstruct the movement of the army. The food supply of the British gave out and the troops began to suffer hunger. Burgoyne knew that at Bennington, in Vermont, there were food supplies and ammunition, and to capture these he sent out a large force of men. The British detachment was met at Bennington by John Stark, who had fought at Bunker Hill. Stark said to his men as he went into the fight: "Tonight the American flag floats from yonder hill, or Molly¹ Stark sleeps a widow." Mrs. Stark was not made a widow



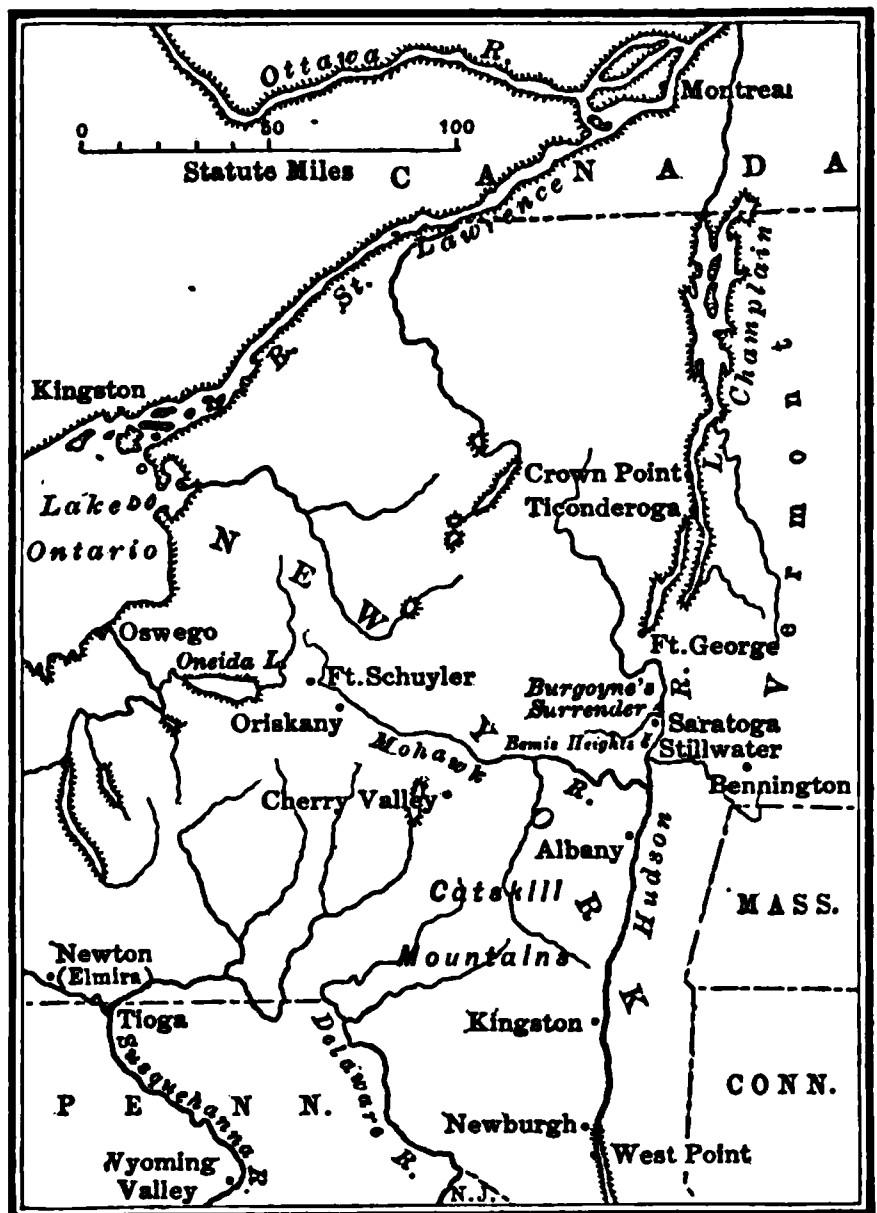
A modern picture of the Chew house, Germantown.

¹ Mrs. Stark's first name was Elizabeth, but the story that has come down to us gives her name as Molly.

that night, but the British force was captured almost to a man (August 15, 1777).

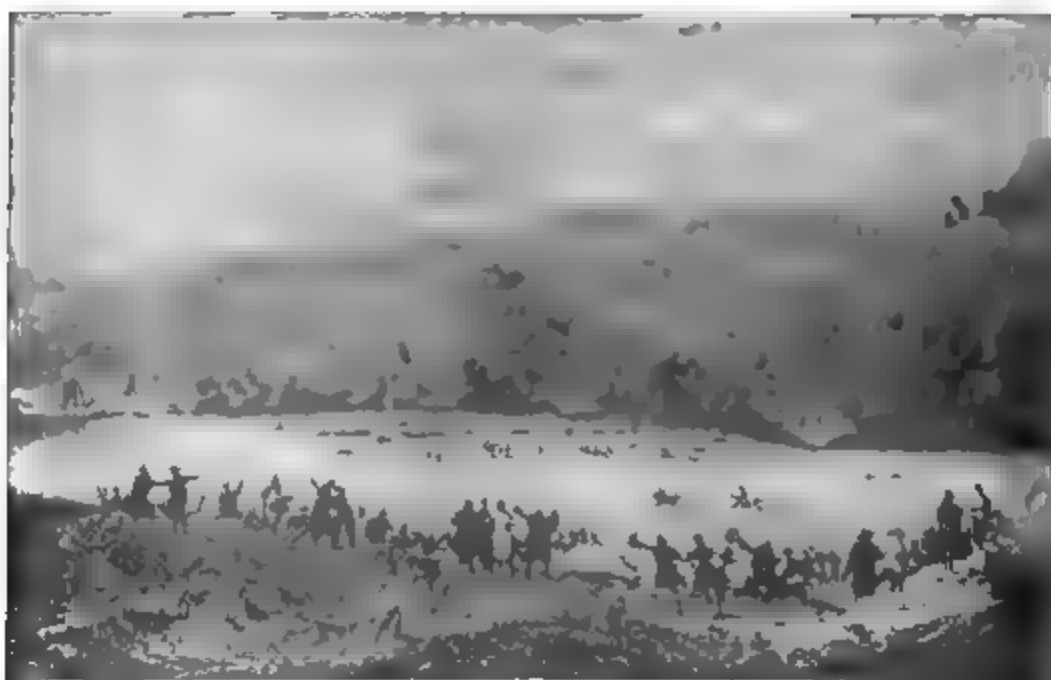
Burgoyne now began to be pressed by difficulties on every side. He was expecting aid from General St. Leger, who was to land at Oswego and move down the Mohawk valley; but St. Leger had met General Herkimer at Oriskany and had been checked and turned back. Burgoyne also expected to meet Howe at Albany, but Howe was hundreds of miles away, defending himself from the attacks of Washington. The British army was without food and was growing smaller every day. The American army was growing larger every day. Troops were arriving from almost every direction and were weaving a web around the British. Washington sent Arnold and Daniel Morgan with his 500 Virginia sharpshooters. The British were in no condition to fight, but fight they must. They were in a trap and must get out of it if they could.

Burgoyne, almost in desperation, charged upon the Americans at Saratoga (or Stillwater), but failed to get out of the trap. Eighteen days later the struggle was renewed, but in vain; Burgoyne was compelled to surrender (October 17), and nearly 6000 soldiers fell into the hands of the Americans. At the time of the battle General Gates was in command. He, therefore, was given credit for the victory, but the hardest fighting was done by Benedict Arnold and Daniel Morgan.



Burgoyne's invasion of New York and scene of border warfare.

Why did not Howe follow the plan that had been mapped out (p. 131) and go north and join his forces with those of Burgoyne? There were two reasons why he did not. First, through a blunder on the part of the authorities in England, he had failed to receive instructions to march to Albany. Second, Washington was all the time giving him so much trouble that even if he had



The surrender of Burgoyne at Saratoga.

From an old print published in France

started for Albany he would hardly have been allowed to proceed.

104. Results of Burgoyne's Surrender.—The battle of Saratoga was by far the greatest battle of the Revolution, and it was one of the most important battles ever fought in the history of the world. It was great because it was *decisive*, because it led to so many important results. In the first place, the surrender of Burgoyne completely shattered the plans which the British had laid for the conquering of America. England had failed to drive the wedge through the colonies. In the second place, the victory was a blow to the pride of England. The English government was now ready to give the Americans everything they had asked for except independence. There would be no more taxes on tea, the Americans could have representation in

Parliament, and there would be pardon for everybody—if only the Americans would lay down their arms.

But the most important result of Burgoyne's surrender was the effect it had upon France. As soon as the French saw that the Americans could help themselves, they acknowledged the independence of the United States, and made a treaty of friendship and alliance with the new nation (February 6, 1778). They did this, not so much because they cared for the Americans as because they hated England. England had shortly before driven the French from America. It would be a sweet revenge if France now should help to drive England out of America.

QUESTIONS ON THE TEXT

1. What was the British plan of campaign in 1776?
2. Give an account of the battle of Long Island. Describe the movements of Washington in the vicinity of New York.
3. Who were the Tories? Where were they the most numerous?
4. What led to the surrender of Fort Washington? Of what act of disobedience was Charles Lee guilty?
5. Give an account of the battles of Trenton and Princeton.
6. What movements led to the capture of Philadelphia by the British?
7. Give an account of Burgoyne's invasion of New York. Give an account of the battle of Saratoga. Why did Howe fail to join his forces with those of Burgoyne?
8. What were the chief results of Burgoyne's surrender? What effect did the surrender have upon France?

REVIEW AND READING REFERENCES

1. Dates: 1492, 1664, 1689, 1733, 1763, 1776.
2. Places: Palos, Plymouth, Boston, Fort Duquesne, Bunker Hill.
3. Persons: Americus Vesputius, Balboa, Cartier, Roger Williams, Washington, Braddock, Franklin, Wolfe, Jefferson.
4. Tell what you can about: the Seven Cities of Cibola; the patroons; the Plymouth colony; the first written constitution; Fort Duquesne; the Albany Congress; the French and Indian War; the treaty of 1763; the Stamp Act; the First Continental Congress; the Declaration of Independence.
5. Topics: The battle of Bennington: 14, 195–196. The struggle for the center: 13, 104–143. Washington's report of the battle of Princeton: 3, 149–151. The Saratoga campaign: 11, 120–143.

XIX

VICTORY AND INDEPENDENCE

O Thou, that sendest out the man
To rule by land and sea,
Strong mother of a Lion-line,
Be proud of those strong sons of thine
Who wrench'd their rights from thee!

Alfred Tennyson.



**Washington's headquarters at
Valley Forge.**

The log ell on the right has been built recently, a facsimile of the original built for Washington. The house is used as a museum.

105. Valley Forge.—We left Washington in Valley Forge, where he quartered his troops during the winter of 1777-78. And a trying winter it was both for the army and for Washington himself. Congress had failed to provide tents, food, and clothing for the army, and the suffering of the men was heartrending.

"The unfortunate soldiers," said Lafayette, a young nobleman who had come over from France and had offered his services to the American army, "were in want of everything; they had neither coats, hats, shirts, nor shoes." The winter at Valley Forge was a trying one to Washington personally, because during that winter a plot was formed to overthrow him as commander-in-chief and to raise Gates, the hero of Saratoga, to his place. Nothing came of the plot, but it grieved Washington deeply to learn that his own officers were planning for his downfall.

The winter at Valley Forge was marked by one event, at least, that proved to be of great advantage to the American army. This was the coming of Baron Steuben. This German soldier saw that the ragged regiments of the Americans needed training and drilling. So he turned his camp into a military school, and before the winter was over had an army that was well organized and well disciplined.

106. Monmouth.—Washington soon had use for his well-drilled army. In the spring of 1778, Howe, who really liked the Americans and who fought against them only in a half-hearted way, was removed from command, and Sir Henry Clinton took his place. Clinton at once received orders to leave Philadelphia and lead his forces to New York. But Washington did not intend to let the British make the journey in peace. At Monmouth, in New Jersey (map, p. 132), he attacked the lines of the marching foe (June 28, 1778). Victory was almost within the grasp of the American army when Charles Lee, who had by this time been given back to the Americans by the British (p. 133), ordered a disgraceful retreat. Washington was able to check the retreat, but he did not hinder Clinton from reaching New York. The battle of Monmouth was disastrous for



Marquis de Lafayette.

Born in France, in 1757, served in the American army during the Revolutionary War, commander-in-chief of the national guard in France, 1789-91; fought against the Austrians; commanded the national guard in the Revolution of 1830; died in 1834.

both sides, and neither side could boast of certain victory. After the battle Washington moved his army up the Hudson and encamped at White Plains, where he remained for nearly three years, watching Clinton and holding him in check.¹

107. War on the Frontier.—The War of the Revolution was

¹In July, 1779, Washington sent General Wayne—known as Mad Anthony Wayne—to capture Stony Point (map, p. 149), a fort held at the time by the British. Wayne made a daring assault upon the fort and carried it by storm.

not long in spreading to the western frontier. In the border warfare the Indians were generally on the side of the English. In the summer of 1778 a company of Indians and Tories—"Tory Rangers" they were called—swept through the beautiful



George Rogers Clark.

Born in Virginia, 1752, died in Kentucky, 1818.

valley of Wyoming, in Pennsylvania, and left behind them an awful scene of murder and destruction. A little later Cherry Valley, in central New York, suffered at the hands of these marauders in much the same way. To put a stop to these outrages General Sullivan was sent against the Tories and their Indian allies, and at Newton, on the site of the present city of Elmira, he met them in battle and punished them severely.

But the most important event connected with the border warfare of the Revolution was the capture of the Illinois country—the Northwest Territory—by George Rogers Clark. Acting in the name of Virginia, this dashing officer, with about 150 men, floated down the Ohio to the mouth of the Cumberland, where he struck northward across the country, marching over prairies and through marshes, captured Kaskaskia and Vincennes, and took possession of the whole region north of the Ohio. Only Detroit was left in the hands of the British.

108. Naval Warfare.—During the Revolution the Americans had no regular navy. Such warfare as they waged on the sea was carried on by private persons. Congress would issue what are known as letters of marque to the owners of merchant vessels, and these letters gave captains authority to make war upon English vessels wherever they might be found. The most famous captain of these privateers was John Paul Jones. With a squadron of three ships this famous sea-fighter harried the

coast of England and Scotland, and was a terror wherever he appeared. In 1779 Jones's flag-ship the *Bonhomme Richard* fought with the British frigate *Serapis*. The two ships were lashed together, and the fighting continued until the decks of both vessels ran with blood and until the ships caught fire. In the end the *Serapis* surrendered. The victory made Jones a hero and caused great rejoicing in America.

109. The War at the South.¹—New England was as good as lost to England on the day that Washington drove the British out of Boston harbor. The Middle States were as good as lost on the day that Burgoyne laid down his arms at Saratoga. After Saratoga, all that was left for the English to fight for was the Southern States. Late in 1778 England carried the war to the South and captured Savannah.

Little was done in 1779, but the next year the war at the South was begun in earnest. Early in 1780 Clinton and Cornwallis, with 8000 troops, laid siege to Charleston and compelled the city to surrender. All Georgia and South Carolina was now in the control of the British. The conquerors, however, did not have a bed of roses, for in South Carolina there were bands of roving patriots who would dart down a mountain-side or out from a dense wood, strike a blow wherever a blow could be struck, and then disappear as suddenly as they had appeared. Chief among the leaders of these bands were Francis Marion and Thomas Sumter.

In the summer of 1780 the Americans had an army in the field in South Carolina under Gates. Corn-



John Paul Jones.

Born at Kirkbean, Scotland, in 1747; entered the American navy; captured the British sloop *Drake* in 1778; commanded the *Bonhomme Richard* during the war between France and England and captured the *Serapis*, rear-admiral in the Russian navy; died at Paris, in 1792.

¹ In June, 1776, the British attacked Charleston, but were driven back by Colonel Moultrie. After this there was no more fighting in the South for more than two years.



The Revolutionary War as fought in the South.

wallis met Gates at Camden (August 15, 1780), when one of the severest battles of the Revolution was fought. De Kalb, who commanded a Maryland regiment, fell bleeding from eleven wounds. Gates himself beat a cowardly retreat and lost all the honors that Saratoga had brought him. The result of the battle of Camden was a complete rout of the American army.

The news of the defeat at Camden was disheartening enough, but the next month the Americans were to hear something even more disheartening: they were to hear that General Benedict Arnold¹ had turned traitor to the American cause. After his excellent service at Saratoga, Arnold had been put in command at Philadelphia, and while there he had been accused of using his official position for purposes of private gain. Washington reprimanded him mildly for his conduct, but forgave him and



The battle of King's Mountain.

said to him: "Exhibit anew those noble qualities which have placed you on the list of our most valued commanders. I will myself furnish you with opportunities of regaining the esteem of your country." Washington made these words good by appointing Arnold commander of West Point, on the Hudson. In September, 1780, Arnold repaid Washington's kindness by entering into a plan to hand West Point over to the British. But the plan failed. Major André, the go-between in the plot, was captured, and concealed in his boots were the papers in Arnold's handwriting. André was hanged as a spy, but Arnold managed to escape within the British lines. The traitor received

¹ Born at Norwich, Connecticut, in 1741; died at London, England, in 1801.

as the price of his dishonor £6000 in gold and a command in the British army.

In October, 1780, the frontiersmen of North Carolina and Tennessee won a great victory over the British at King's Mountain. In a short time the battle at Cowpens followed. Here the British met Morgan's sharpshooters (map, p. 144) and suffered another disastrous defeat (January, 1781). General Nathanael Greene¹ was now in command of the Southern forces, and so successful were his operations that he soon took from the British nearly all the territory they had won in the Carolinas.

When Cornwallis found he could make no headway in the Carolinas, he marched his troops into Virginia, the State which, next to Massachusetts, had done the most to bring on the war. Washington at this time was in the North, planning for an attack upon New York, but he was also keeping a watchful eye upon what was going on in his native State. He had sent down the brilliant and brave Frenchman Lafayette, who met Cornwallis on his entrance into Virginia and who gave the British general a chase. "The boy"—Lafayette was then but twenty-three years of age—"can't escape me," said Cornwallis. But the boy did escape him, and when the chase had ended the army of Cornwallis was occupying an unfavorable position at Yorktown, on the peninsula formed by the York and James rivers.

Washington now saw his chance. He gave up his plan of attacking New York and hurried South with his army. On his way he made a short visit to his home at Mount Vernon, which he had not seen for six years. When he reached Yorktown a French fleet under Admiral Count De Grasse was guarding the entrance to the Chesapeake Bay. The French and Americans, outnumbering the British two to one, closed in on Cornwallis by land, and the guns of the French fleet made it impossible for him to escape by water. As at Saratoga, so at Yorktown, the British had been caught in a trap, and there was nothing for them to do but surrender. After a desperate resistance Cornwallis gave up his sword and surrendered (October 19, 1781).

¹ Born at Warwick, Rhode Island, in 1742; died at Savannah, Georgia, in 1786.



The surrender of Cornwallis at Yorktown, October 19, 1781.

•From Trumbull's painting. The American officers are on the right, the British officers on the left. General Lincoln (on horseback), representing General Washington, is receiving the sword of General O'Hara, representing Cornwallis.

his entire army of 8000 men as prisoners of war. "O God, it is all over, it is all over!" said Lord North, when he heard of the surrender. And it was all over. The battle of Yorktown ended the Revolution and gave independence to the United States.

110. The Treaty of Peace, 1783.—The fruits of the victory were seen in the treaty of peace which was concluded at Paris in 1783. By this treaty the independence of the United States was acknowledged. The boundaries of the new nation were to be the southern border of Canada on the north, the Mississippi on the west, and Florida on the south. Americans were given the right to fish on the coast of Newfoundland, and the Mississippi River was to be open to British as well as to American ships. Florida, which by the treaty of 1763 had been ceded to the British, was given back to Spain. Taking it all in all, the treaty of Paris was entirely favorable to the Americans and was a great credit to the three men who carried it through—Benjamin Franklin, John Jay, and John Adams.

QUESTIONS ON THE TEXT

1. Describe the experience of the American army at Valley Forge. Who was Lafayette? Baron Steuben?
2. Give an account of the battle of Monmouth.
3. What injuries were inflicted upon the Americans by the Tory Rangers? What services were rendered by George Rogers Clark?
4. What kind of naval warfare did the Americans conduct? What were the naval achievements of John Paul Jones?
5. Who was Marion? Sumter? Give an account of the battle of Camden. Give an account of the treason of Benedict Arnold. What battles did the Americans win in the Carolinas in 1780 and 1781? Give an account of the surrender of the British at Yorktown.
6. What were the terms of the treaty of 1783?

REVIEW AND READING REFERENCES

1. Dates: 1588, 1643, 1689 (2), 1754, 1763, 1776, 1777.
2. Places: San Salvador, Philadelphia (2), Charleston, Bunker Hill, Saratoga.
3. Persons: De Soto, Calvert, Virginia Dare, Penn, Oglethorpe, Andros, Jefferson, Burgoyne.
4. Tell what you can about: the voyage of Magellan; the Line of Demarcation; Bacon's Rebellion; King Philip's War; the Frontier Line in 1700; in 1740; the Stamp Act; the First Continental Congress; the Declaration of Independence; Burgoyne's surrender.
5. Topics: Paul Jones's greatest battle: 14, 225-226. Yorktown: 11, 145-152. A ballad on Cornwallis: 3, 159, 160. George Rogers Clark: 12, 55-65; also 6, 127-137. Robert Morris, the financier of the Revolution: 8, 66-75. Lines to Washington: 14, 263, 264.

AN OUTLINE FOR A REVIEW OF THE WAR OF THE REVOLUTION



XX

FORMING A MORE PERFECT UNION

We can give up everything but our Constitution, which is the sun of our system. As the natural sun dispels fogs, heats the air, and vivifies and illumines the world, even so does the Constitution, in days of adversity and gloom, come out for our rescue and enlightening.—*Daniel Webster.*

111. The State Constitutions.—You have learned (p. 107) that before the Revolution the colonies had very little to do with one another. Every colony was bound to Great Britain by the tie of dependence, but there were no ties to bind one colony to another; there was no force to hold the colonies together. When the tie of dependence upon England was snapped by the Declaration of Independence each colony became what was called a “free and independent State,” and it was necessary to change the old colonial governments into State governments. To bring about this change representatives of the people in each State met in a convention, called a “constitutional convention,” and agreed on a plan as to how the State should be governed. This plan was written out in black and white and was called the constitution of the State. The colonies of Connecticut and Rhode Island, however, did not form new constitutions, but took their old charters (pp. 58, 60) for constitutions.

In drawing up its constitution each State followed its own wishes and its own needs. The constitution of Georgia differed from that of New Hampshire, because the needs of Georgia were different from those of New Hampshire. Yet while the governments of the States differed from one another, they at the same time bore a strong resemblance to one another. While many people of foreign blood had come into the colonies, they had all become Americans and had been brought up under British traditions and customs and had the same notions of government and law. Every State had a government in which the people had a voice, and the power of government in every State

was separated and given to three sets of men: one set to make laws (the legislative department); one set to decide on the meaning of the laws and to declare who are guilty of breaking them (the judicial department); and one set to enforce the laws (the executive department).

112. The Two Governments.—But the Declaration of Independence did not leave the State free to do everything that a government can do—did not leave it free to exercise *all* the powers of government—for the Declaration brought into the world a new nation, the United States, and this new nation had some powers of its own and a government of its own, namely, the Continental Congress. This Congress, from the first, did some things a State never did and never tried to do. For example, it conducted a war—the War of the Revolution—it made treaties with foreign nations, and it managed the post-office.

At the very beginning of our political life, then, there were two kinds of government at work in the United States—a central government, the Congress, exercising power in respect to war, treaties, and postal affairs, and State governments exercising power in respect to all other matters. The central government had but few things to do, and in its organization it was very weak. The State governments had many things to do, and in their organization they were strong.

113. The Articles of Confederation.—The statesmen of the Revolution were not long in learning that the central government was too weak to do good work, and in 1781 they succeeded in getting the States to agree to the celebrated Articles of Confederation. These articles increased the power of the central government. They gave Congress the power:

- (1) To determine questions of peace and war.
- (2) To attend to foreign affairs of every kind.
- (3) To manage Indian affairs.
- (4) To call upon the States for their share of the expenses of the central government.
- (5) To settle disputes between States concerning boundaries.
- (6) To establish and regulate post-offices.

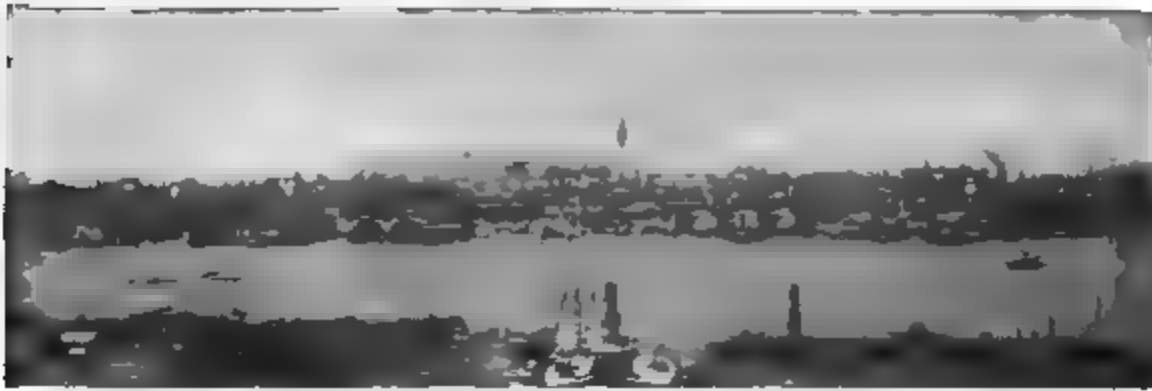


Philadelphia just before the Revolution.

From an engraving published in the *London Magazine* in 1761

For the carrying of these powers into effect the Articles of Confederation provided a very poor form of government. Instead of providing for a government of three departments such as the States had, they provided for only one department, the legislative department, Congress. In the Congress the voting was done by States, each State having one vote. Under this arrangement the smallest State had as much power as the largest. In the exercise of its powers Congress was completely at the mercy of the States. If it passed a law, it depended upon the States to carry the law into effect. It could not, with its own officers, go to the individual citizen, lay its hands upon him, and compel him to obey its laws, and punish him if he disobeyed them. Moreover, Congress lacked real power in respect to taxation. It could ask a State for taxes, but it could not compel a State to pay them.

As long as the war with England continued, the Articles of Confederation served a useful purpose; but when peace came and common danger no longer spurred the people to united action, the Articles were seen to be only a rope of sand. The history of the United States from 1783 to 1787 is little else than a tale of disgraceful happenings, due to the weakness of the central power. The United States could not keep its treaties with the foreign countries, it could not pay its debts, it could not keep peace between the States. Congress lost the respect of the country, and statesmen did not care even to attend its meetings. On one occasion the members of Congress were chased out of Philadelphia by a handful of drunken soldiers clamoring for their pay.



Philadelphia in 1910.

A photograph from about the same point of view as that of the picture on the opposite page. The highest tower in the center of that picture is Christ Church steeple. Here the highest tower is the City Hall, and Christ Church steeple is at the right, over the tall chimney, and lost in the haze.

Even within the separate States there were disorders and violence. People everywhere were heavily in debt, and in some States, when the courts ordered the sheriff to sell property for the purpose of paying debts, there were riots and mobs. In Massachusetts there was open rebellion. Daniel Shays, who had been a captain in the Continental army, brought about a thousand men together and for six months (1786) defied the authority of the State. Shays's Rebellion—as the uprising was called—was finally quelled, but it lasted long enough to show the unhealthy condition of affairs.

By 1786 the Union was on the point of going to pieces, and it would have done so had it not been for two things. In the first place, the people were afraid of disunion. They saw that if the central government were allowed to perish utterly there would be scattered along the Atlantic coast thirteen weak little nations instead of one strong one. Each State would be to every other State a foreign country. In matters of government Connecticut would be no more to Massachusetts than that State would be to Turkey. And what would such disunion mean? It would mean confusion and jealousy and all kinds of bickerings and strife. Indeed, it might mean to each State the loss of its independence, for England was still standing ready to win back her lost colonies, and if the States should fail to hold together she would be only too glad to pounce down upon them and win them back one by one.

In the second place, the States did not wish to lose through disunion their property interest in the great Northwest Terri-



Independence Hall, Philadelphia.
Where the Declaration of Independence was signed.

tory, a region (colored map) which included what are now the States of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, Wisconsin, and a part of Minnesota. The United States, by the treaty of 1783, had come into possession of this vast region. Four States had laid claim¹ to portions of the Northwest Territory, but in order to secure the adoption of the Articles of Confederation² one State after another had given up its claim, and by 1786 the whole territory (with the exception of a small slice claimed by Virginia and a small slice retained by Connecticut) had passed under the control of the United States. The Northwest Territory, therefore, became our national domain, a great tract of land belonging to the government of the United States. Congress controlled the selling of these lands, and the States saw that if they would only hold together they would all share in the proceeds of the land sales, for the money would all go into the treasury of the United States. If, on the other hand, the Union should be broken, most of the States would be shut out from all interest and claim on the Western lands. So the possession of the Northwest Territory by Congress proved to be a powerful reason for holding the Union together.

114. The Constitutional Convention of 1787.—Before it was too late the great men of the country began to take steps to secure the blessings of union and to cure the evils of disunion.

¹ The claims of the several States are shown on the colored map.

² Maryland refused to ratify the Articles of Confederation until she was assured that the Western lands would be ceded to the United States.

In 1787 a convention, representing all the States except Rhode Island, met in Philadelphia for the purpose of so revising the Articles of Confederation that the central government would have more power. In this convention were the best men America possessed. Washington was the chairman. Along with Washington from Virginia came James Madison, a man deeply versed both in the learning of books and in the ways of men. From New York came Alexander Hamilton, who in all things stood shoulder to shoulder with Washington and who was regarded by all as one of the greatest men of his age. Massachusetts sent Elbridge Gerry and Rufus King, the former a signer of the Declaration of Independence, and the latter one of the ablest statesmen of his time. Connecticut sent Oliver Ellsworth and Roger Sherman, jurists of the highest rank, the latter a signer of the Declaration of Independence. Among the representatives of Pennsylvania was Benjamin Franklin, the oldest man in the convention and in some respects the greatest.

The men of the convention started out with the purpose of merely revising the Articles of Confederation, but they soon decided that the Articles were so worthless that they could not be patched up and that an entirely new government was necessary. So they boldly set about laying the foundations of a new political system. They remained at the task for one hundred days, and when they had finished they had framed the Constitution of the United States—the Constitution under which we live to-day.

The Constitution drawn up by the convention was sent to the several States for approval. In some of the States it met with fierce opposition, but it had strong supporters in almost every



Carpenters' Hall, Philadelphia.
Where the Constitutional Convention
was held.

State, and one by one the States voted to accept it, until eleven—all but Rhode Island¹ and North Carolina—had approved it. So the work of the convention received the approval of the people of the United States, and the Constitution became the supreme law of the land.

115. The Difference between the Constitution and the Articles of Confederation.—How did the Constitution of 1787 differ from the Articles of Confederation? How did the new central (national) government differ from the old? There were many points of difference, but the most important were the following:



Continental currency.

(1) The Constitution of 1787 provided for a government with three great departments instead of one: it provided for a President (the executive department) and a Supreme Court (the judicial department) as well as for a Congress (the legislative department).

(2) The Constitution provided for a better representation of the people in Congress. Under the Articles a small State had as much power in Congress as a large State, for each State had one vote. Under the Constitution the States were still made equal in the Senate, each State having two votes, but in the House they were to be represented according to population.

¹In 1789 North Carolina joined the Union, and in 1790 Rhode Island did likewise.

(3) Under the Constitution the national government did not depend upon the State for the enforcement of its laws, but enforced its own laws with its own officers.

(4) Under the Constitution the national government could reach the individual citizen, while under the Articles the central government could deal only with States.

(5) The Constitution gave the national government the power of taxation. Under the Articles, Congress could only ask for taxes; under the Constitution, Congress could levy a tax and compel individuals to pay it.

(6) The Constitution gave the national government the power to regulate trade between States, while under the Articles each State made trade regulations to suit itself.

QUESTIONS ON THE TEXT

1. How was the colonial government changed to a State government? In what respect were the governments of all the States alike?
2. What two governments were in operation in America when independence was declared? Name the powers of the central government.
3. What were the powers of the central government under the Articles of Confederation? In what respects were the Articles weak? What events showed plainly the weakness of the Articles? Give an account of Shays's Rebellion. What two things held the Union together?
4. Give an account of the Constitutional Convention of 1787.
5. In what six important particulars did the Constitution of 1787 differ from the Articles of Confederation?

REVIEW AND READING REFERENCES

1. Dates: 1609, 1664, 1681, 1689 (2), 1733, 1776, 1777, 1781.
2. Places: Genoa, New Amsterdam, Quebec (2), New Orleans, Bunker Hill, Saratoga, Yorktown.
3. Persons: Cabot, Drake, Calvert, Hudson, Champlain, Marquette, La Salle, Jefferson, Burgoyne, Cornwallis, Lafayette.
4. Tell what you can about: the New England Confederation; the founding of Pennsylvania; King William's War; Queen Anne's War; King George's War; the first Continental Congress; the Declaration of Independence; Burgoyne's surrender; the treaty of 1783.
5. Topics: The Federal Constitution: 14, 272. The "New Roof": 3, 178-180. The birth of the nation: 13, 182-193.



The inauguration of President Washington.

XXI

LAUNCHING THE "SHIP OF STATE" (1789-1801)

Sound, sound the trump of fame!
Let Washington's great name
Ring through the world with great applause.
With equal skill, with steady power,
He governs in the fearful hour
Of horrid war, or guides with ease
The happier time of honest peace.

Joseph Hopkinson.

THE ADMINISTRATION OF GEORGE WASHINGTON (TWO TERMS, 1789-97)



116. Washington the First President.

—Who was to be the first President of the United States under the new Constitution? Everybody felt that the man who was "first in war, first in peace, and first in the hearts of his countrymen" ought to be placed at the head of the new government. When the

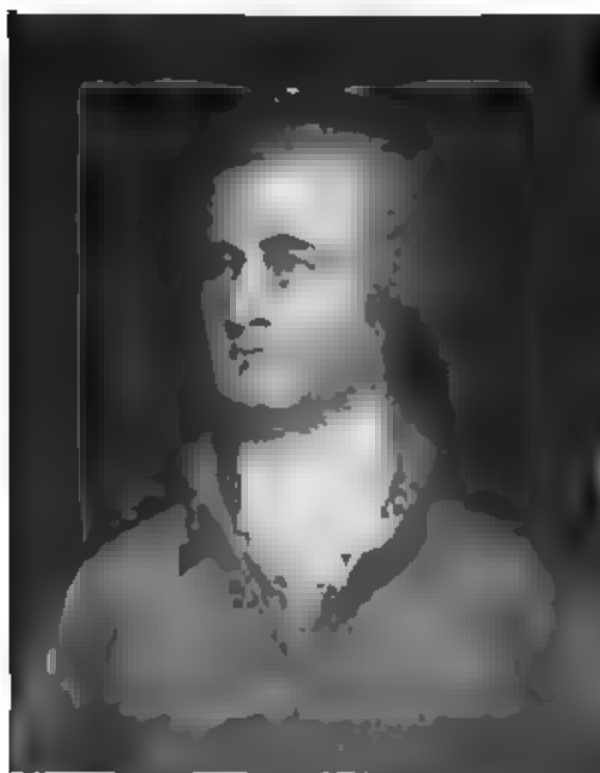
From a penny of 1791. presidential electors,¹ therefore, cast their ballots in January, 1789, for the first President, every vote went for George Washington. Washington at the time was in retirement at his home on the banks of the Potomac, where he longed to spend the rest of his days in peace. He could not, however, turn a deaf ear to the call of his countrymen. When notified of his election, he started at once for New York, where Congress was in session. On his journey northward the people everywhere came out to meet him and to bid him God-speed in the great work he was about to undertake.

In New York, on April 30, 1789, in the presence of a vast

¹The President of the United States is not chosen directly by the voters, but by a body of presidential electors. These electors are chosen by the States, and each State is entitled to as many electors as it has Senators and Representatives in Congress.

multitude, he took the oath of office; the people shouted, "Long live George Washington, the President of the United States," and a new nation was launched upon the ocean of political life.

117. The Organization of the New Government.—One of the first things Congress and the President had to do was to organize the new government along the lines laid down by the Constitution. Congress at once created three great executive departments for the transaction of the government's business: a department of foreign affairs, a department of finance, and a department of war. The heads of these departments were appointed by the President, and in making his selection Washington aimed to get the very best men that could be found. For the Secretary of State—as the head of the department of foreign affairs was called—he chose Thomas Jefferson; for the Secretary of the Treasury—as the head of the department of finance was



Alexander Hamilton.

Born in the West Indies, in 1757; member of Washington's staff; member of Continental Congress, Constitutional Convention, and of New York ratifying convention; Secretary of the Treasury; commander-in-chief of the army; mortally wounded in a duel with Aaron Burr in 1804.

called—he chose Alexander Hamilton; for the Secretary of War he chose General Henry Knox. As the law officer of the new government Edmund Randolph was appointed, with the title of Attorney-General. These four men made up Washington's cabinet. Congress also provided at once for the organization of the new national courts. The first Supreme Court was made to consist of the Chief Justice and five associate justices. For the Chief Justice, Washington chose John Jay of New York.

The new government was now fully organized to do business. There were the Senate and House of Representatives to make all needful laws; there were the President and

his cabinet to carry these laws into effect; and there were the national courts to try cases that arose under the laws of the United States.

118. Raising Money for the Support of the New Government.—The thing most needed by the new government was money. It needed money not only for its running expenses, but also for the payment of the interest on its debts. The new Congress, therefore, began to plan for a revenue even before it attended to the matter of organization. It laid a *tariff*, or tax, on foreign imports. The chief articles taxed were glass, tin, salt, tea, sugar, and wine. Under the old order of things, the States collected the taxes on foreign imports, but under the Constitution the taxes on imports were to be turned into the treasury of the United States. The wisdom of this was seen at once. The tax on imports was soon bringing in \$200,000 a month. The government of the United States was no longer a beggar (p. 152); it had an independent income of its own.

Measures for raising revenue were quickly followed by measures for paying off the public debt. There was reason for haste in this matter, for the United States at the time was looked down upon by other countries because it would not or could not pay its debts. Hamilton came forward with a plan to put the finances of the country on a sound footing and to restore the national credit. Hamilton had rendered noble service in securing the ratification of the Constitution, and in the work of launching the new government under the Constitution he was second only to Washington himself. In the fulfilment of his duties as the Secretary of the Treasury he was so successful that "the whole country perceived with delight and the whole world saw with admiration. He smote the rock of the national resources, and abundant streams of revenue gushed forth. He touched the dead corpse of the public credit, and it sprang upon its feet."¹ Hamilton urged Congress to plan for the payment of the foreign debt (\$12,000,000) and of the home debt of the Confederation (\$42,000,000). In addition, he urged that Congress should take upon itself the responsibility for the

¹From a speech by Daniel Webster.

payment of the debts which the States had incurred in behalf of the Revolution, debts amounting to about \$21,000,000.

All the members of Congress were in favor of paying the foreign debt and the regular home debt of the Confederation, but there were many members who were opposed to paying the debts of the States. Now it happened that, while the question of assuming the debt of the States was being discussed, there was going on also in Congress a lively discussion as to where the permanent capital of the nation should be located. Many of the Southern members wanted it on the Potomac; many of the Northern members wanted it at some point farther north. At last a bargain was struck. Hamilton persuaded some of the Northern members to vote for a capital on the Potomac, and Jefferson persuaded some of the Southern members to vote for Hamilton's plan of assumption. So, thanks to the compromise, Hamilton's plan of assumption was carried, and the new capital was located on the Potomac.

119. The First Bank of the United States.—Hamilton also wanted to establish a bank in which the new government would have a direct interest. Such a bank, he claimed, would enable the government to borrow money on easy terms, and would be a safe and convenient place for depositing the funds of the government. The measure was bitterly opposed, but Hamilton was again victorious in Congress, and in 1791 the first Bank of the United States was chartered for a period of twenty years.

120. The Whisky Insurrection.—In 1794 Washington had an opportunity to show that the new government was strong enough to carry out its laws. Congress had laid taxes on distilled spirits. In western Pennsylvania the manufacturers of whisky refused to pay the tax, and in resistance took up arms. Washington sent 15,000 soldiers against the law-breakers, and the "Whisky Insurrection" was soon put down. This action of the President showed that the new government was strong enough to secure obedience to its laws.

121. The Beginnings of Political Parties.—The discussion of the bank scheme caused men to divide into two political parties. A great many people thought the new government of the United

States ought to do only the things that the Constitution expressly said it might do, and since the Constitution said nothing about banks, Congress, these people contended, had no right to establish a bank. The men who believed in holding Congress down strictly to the words of the Constitution formed themselves into a political party known as the party of *strict construction*, or the Democratic-Republican party, soon to be known simply as the Democratic party. The leader of this party was Thomas Jefferson.

But many people did not believe in holding Congress strictly to the words of the Constitution. Many believed in looking at the Constitution broadly, and they thought that Congress had the right to choose all means that seemed to be necessary to carry out the purposes for which the government was established. Those who held these broad, liberal ideas in respect to the meaning of the Constitution rallied around Hamilton, and formed the Federalist party, or the party of *broad construction*. Thus at the very beginning of our national life the people separated into two political parties.

122. The United States Neutral as between England and France.—In 1793 Washington had to solve a knotty problem relating to the foreign policy of the United States. At this time France was in the midst of a bloody revolution. The common people, who had been unjustly treated for centuries, had turned against their rulers, had beheaded their king, and had taken the government into their own hands. This brought on a war between England and France, and in a very short time the United States had to choose the part it would take in the struggle. By the treaty (p. 139) made during the Revolution we were bound to show certain favors to France. Gratitude also prompted us to help the nation that had done so much for us. But the United States was just getting on its feet, and if in its weak condition it should plunge into a war with England, it might be wholly destroyed. Washington, after consulting with his cabinet, decided that the United States would take the part of neither France nor England, but would remain neutral. Just about the time he proclaimed neutrality, Genet, the minister from the new

French republic, arrived in America, and tried to persuade the people to take up the cause of France, in spite of Washington's proclamation. But in this the Frenchman failed. Sober-minded citizens saw that Washington was right, and stood by him.

123. Jay's Treaty.—There was danger also of war with England, for England still held the Western forts (Oswego, Mackinaw, and Detroit) and was interfering with our commerce. She was also taking our sailors and impressing them into her service in a way which the United States regarded as unfair. Again Washington was ready to take any honorable means to avoid war, and he sent Chief Justice Jay to England to see if this could not be accomplished. Jay negotiated a treaty with England by which the Western forts were to be given up, but which otherwise was not very favorable to the United States. The treaty was very unpopular in America, but Washington signed it because he thought it was better than no treaty at all. The result showed that he acted wisely, for it prevented war, and under its provisions our commerce revived.



Mount Vernon, the home of Washington.

Washington was unanimously elected (in 1793) for a second term, and would have been elected for a third term had he not been weary of public life. At the end of his second term he retired to his estate on the Potomac, where he lived quietly and happily until his death (December 14, 1799).

• THE ADMINISTRATION OF JOHN ADAMS (1797-1801)

124. More Trouble with France.—Washington was succeeded in the Presidency by John Adams, who had been Vice-President during the first two administrations. Adams at once found that he was going to have trouble with France. That country felt that it had not been treated justly by the United States, and it showed its resentment in every way it could. It sent the American minister out of the land. It seized upon American vessels wherever it could find them. Adams desired to avoid war if he could, so he sent three envoys to Paris to see if the difference between the countries could not be adjusted. The envoys were told that they must pay a sum of money—"much money"—to the French government before they could be received, and that the United States must lend money to France to enable her to carry on war against England. The envoys would not listen to such terms, and one of them, Charles Pinckney, with much spirit declared: "Millions for defense, but not one cent for tribute." These words were taken up in the United States and became a popular cry.¹ The report of the envoys threw the people of the United States into a rage, and a shout went up for a war with France. Preparations for war were made, but Napoleon Bonaparte, then at the head of affairs in France, prevented a formal declaration of war by ordering French cruisers to let American vessels alone, and by entering into a treaty that was satisfactory to both countries.



John Adams.

Born in Massachusetts, in 1735; delegate to the Continental Congress, signed the Declaration of Independence, Vice-President, 1789-97; second President, 1797-1801; died July 4, 1826, on the same day with Thomas Jefferson.

¹The names of the French agents who dealt with the envoys were concealed under the letters X. Y. Z., and these letters have always been used to give a name to this affair.

125. The Alien and Sedition Laws.—During the French trouble, Congress passed the famous Alien and Sedition Laws. The Alien Law gave the President power to drive out of the country, without giving a reason and without holding a trial, any foreigner whom he might regard as being a dangerous person. The Sedition Law made it a crime for any one to print malicious writings for the purpose of bringing the President and Congress into contempt. It was felt that the law dealt a blow at freedom of speech and liberty of the press. Neither of these laws was strictly enforced, and very little came of them.

Yet the Alien and Sedition Laws had two important results: First, they brought a storm of popular disfavor upon Adams and other Federalists, and helped to defeat Adams for reelection, and to drive the Federalist party from power. Second, they called forth the Virginia and Kentucky Resolutions. These resolutions declared that the Alien and Sedition Laws were in violation of the Constitution, and that it was the duty of the States to combine and refuse obedience to the two laws. The hidden meaning of the resolutions was that if the States desired they could, by combined action, “nullify” or set aside a law of Congress—a doctrine that was to bring much evil upon the country.

QUESTIONS ON THE TEXT

1. Give an account of the election and inauguration of Washington.
2. How did Congress organize the new government? Name the members of Washington’s cabinet. Who was the first Chief Justice of the Supreme Court?
3. In what way did Congress raise money for the support of the new government? What measures did Hamilton provide for paying the public debt? How was the location of the national capital determined?
4. Give an account of the establishment of the first Bank of the United States.
5. Give an account of the Whisky Insurrection.
6. What caused the division of men into political parties? Who was the leader of the Democratic party? What was the doctrine of this party? Who was the leader of the Federalist party? What was the doctrine of this party?
7. What was Washington’s policy in dealing with England and France? What was the mission of Genet?

8. What were the provisions of Jay's treaty?
9. Give an account of the trouble which Adams had with France. What was the X. Y. Z. affair?
10. What was the Alien Law? The Sedition Law? What two important results did the Alien and Sedition Laws have?

REVIEW AND READING REFERENCES

1. Dates: 1522, 1733, 1754, 1763, 1777, 1781, 1787.
2. Places: Plymouth, Providence, Fort Duquesne, Saratoga, Yorktown.
3. Persons: John Winthrop, Oglethorpe, Wolfe, Washington, Braddock, Franklin, Burgoyne, Cornwallis, Lafayette.
4. Tell what you can about: the founding of Maryland; the French and Indian War; the Albany Congress; the treaty of 1763; Burgoyne's surrender; the treaty of 1783; the Articles of Confederation; the convention of 1787.
5. Topics: The inauguration of Washington: 15 (Vol. I), 54-64. A Democratic view of Washington: 3, 181-183. Alexander Hamilton, the architect of American finance: 8, 76-84. Thomas Jefferson: 8, 56-65; also 6, 219-229. The Alien and Sedition Laws: 15 (Vol. I), 65-79. Adams and liberty: 14, 276, 277.

XXII

ALONG THE KENTUCKY, THE TENNESSEE, AND THE OHIO: KENTUCKY; TENNESSEE; THE NORTH- WEST TERRITORY

The westward-moving frontier of the American people is beyond doubt the most interesting subject that American history presents.—*Ellen Churchill Semple.*

Introduction.—We have already learned (p. 90) how the colonists at an early date began to push out toward the West. In truth, the history of the United States was for nearly two hundred and fifty years the history of a mighty Westward Movement which began at Jamestown in 1607 and which did not end until the Pacific coast was reached in the middle of the nineteenth century. Throughout this whole period the current of American life was always setting strongly to the West. Men were always leaving the older Eastern settlements and pushing deeper and deeper into the Western forests and farther and farther out on the Western plains. In studying the history of our country, therefore, we must from time to time turn away from the affairs of the nation, from the deeds of Presidents and of Congress, to observe the progress of this Westward Movement and learn how the great wild West was brought under the control of the white man and built up into flourishing States.

126. The Westward Movement in Colonial Times.—The progress of the Westward Movement in colonial times was slow. A hundred and fifty years passed before the frontier line was pushed beyond the Appalachian ridge. This slowness was due in part to the action of the English government. Soon after England (in 1763) came into possession of the country west of the Alleghanies (p. 113) the king issued a proclamation reserving most of the newly acquired territory for the use of the Indians and forbidding the governors of the colonies to grant lands to white men west of the mountains. If this plan

had been carried out, English civilization would have been confined to the seaboard, and the richest and fairest portions of the earth would have been permanently reserved as a hunting-ground for savages and as a lair for wild beasts. But the War of the Revolution took the Western country from England and gave it to the United States.

The Ohio valley was then thrown open to settlers, and white men from all parts of the world rushed into the new lands like hungry cattle rushing into new pastures. In twenty years after the acknowledgment of our independence (in 1783) the Frontier Line (p. 178) moved farther westward than it had moved in a century under British rule.

127. Kentucky.—The first great stream of Western emigration after the Revolution flowed into the region now included within the borders of Kentucky and Tennessee. This territory was a neutral hunting-

ground for Northern and Southern Indians. The red men hunted over it, but did not live permanently upon it or claim it as their own. The district, therefore, was easier for the white man to settle than were the surrounding regions in which the Indians had permanent homes.

The settlement of the Kentucky region really began several years before the Revolution. In 1769 Daniel Boone, a great hunter and one of the most interesting of American pioneers, left his home on the Yadkin River, in North Carolina, to seek the wilderness of Kentucky. With five companions he passed



Daniel Boone.

Born in Pennsylvania, in 1735; began the exploration of Kentucky in 1769; emigrated to Missouri, then a possession of Spain, in 1795; died in Missouri, in 1820.

through the gorges of the Cumberland Gap and reached the blue-grass region, "a land of running waters, of groves and glades, of prairies, cane-brakes, and stretches of lofty forests."

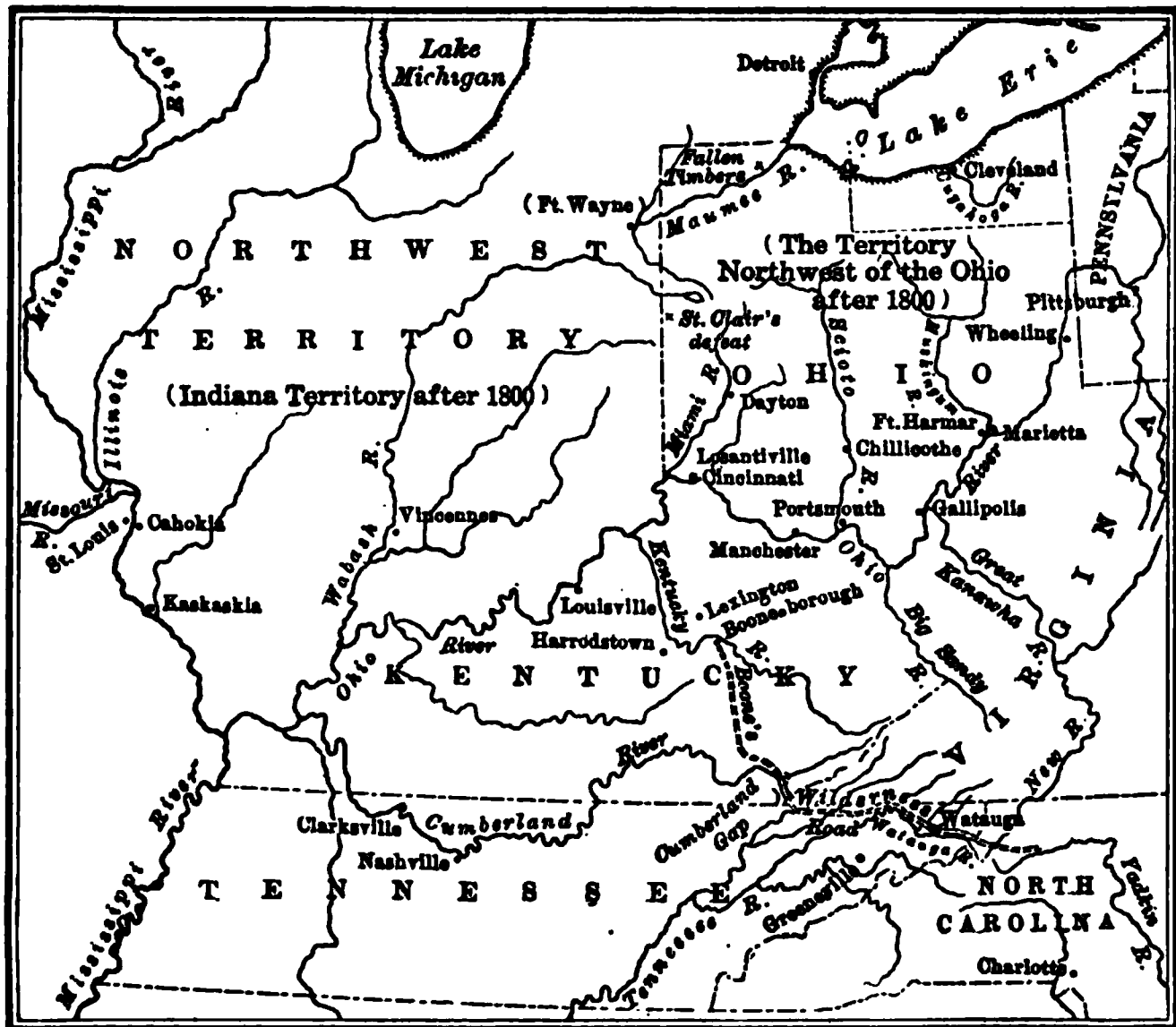
Boone returned to North Carolina, but not to remain. His restless spirit still yearned for the beautiful banks of the far-off Kentucky. In 1773 he sold his farms, and with wife and children and about fifty persons besides started for Kentucky with the purpose of making a permanent settlement there. On the way, however, the party was attacked by Indians—for even in this neutral territory the Indian was sometimes troublesome—and Boone and his companions were compelled to turn back.

But the fame of the Kentucky country was now wide-spread, and its settlement was near at hand. In 1774 James Harrod of Virginia, with fifty men, floated down the Ohio River in flat-boats, and, ascending the Kentucky River, selected the present site of Harrodsburg as a place for a settlement and built some cabins. The place was given the name of Harrodstown (afterward Harrodsburg) and was the first permanent settlement in Kentucky. The next year Boone safely reached Kentucky and founded the town of Boonesborough. In 1775 Lexington also was founded. "When the embattled farmers fired the shot heard round the world [p. 124], a party of hunters heard the echo and baptized the station they were building Lexington." Louisville was founded in 1777.

In 1776 Virginia, the real owner of Kentucky (colored map), finding that her Western settlements needed a governor, organized them into a regular Virginia county with the boundaries of the present Kentucky and with the name of *Kentucky*. The county-seat was Harrodstown. Kentucky County flourished, and by the end of the Revolution it had been divided into three counties (Fayette, Jefferson, and Lincoln). The name Kentucky was now used to describe the whole region which was known as the "District of Kentucky." During the Revolution Kentucky had greatly increased in population, and by 1783 there were probably 30,000 inhabitants within its borders.

No sooner had peace with England been declared than the Kentuckians began to grow restless under the rule of Virginia.

They desired to separate from the mother State and to become a separate State. After years of discussion and agitation their wishes were granted. In 1789 Virginia consented to a separation, which took place in 1792, when Kentucky came into the



Kentucky, Tennessee, and early Ohio.

Union as the second¹ of the admitted States. When it entered the Union it had a population of 100,000.

128. Tennessee.—While Boone and his followers were laying the foundation for a State on the banks of the Kentucky, other pioneers from North Carolina and Virginia were laying the foundations for another State on the banks of streams that flow into the Tennessee. In the very year (1769) that Boone visited the blue-grass region, William Bean of Virginia built himself a

¹The first State to be admitted into the Union under the Constitution was Vermont. The Vermont people during the Revolution had adopted a constitution and had declared Vermont to be an independent State, but it was not recognized as a State for the reason that the Vermont region was claimed by New York. In 1790 New York withdrew her claim, and in 1791 Vermont entered the Union.

log cabin on the Watauga River. Pioneers came and settled near Bean, and in a short time several hundred people had their homes on the banks of the Watauga. This Watauga settlement was the beginning of the State of Tennessee.



Emigrants descending the Tennessee River.

The Tennessee region belonged to North Carolina, and the people of Watauga depended upon that State to give them protection and to provide them with a good government. This the parent State failed to do. It left its little child in the woods to get along as best it could by its own exertions. So the settlers of Watauga did what the settlers in the Connecticut valley had done long before (p. 57); they drew up (in 1772) a plan of government—a written constitution—and proceeded to govern themselves. And the records show that their government was effective and that their justice was swift. In one case a horse-thief was arrested on Monday, tried on Wednesday, and hanged on Friday of the same week. The "Articles of the Watauga Association"—as the rude constitution of the backwoodsmen was called—were the first written constitution ever adopted west of the Alleghany Mountains, and the first ever adopted by American-born freemen.

North Carolina continued to let her Western children shift for themselves, until at last for their own defense and safety they organized as a separate State, and called the new State Franklin, in honor of Benjamin Franklin. John Sevier, the

greatest of the early leaders in Tennessee, was elected governor of Franklin, and Greenville was made the capital of the State. But the State of Franklin had only a short life. North Carolina came forward promptly and asserted her rights, and by 1788 the officers of Franklin were all driven from power, the new State was dead, and North Carolina was again in full control of Tennessee.

But North Carolina really did not care to hold these back-woods settlements permanently, and in 1790 she offered to give Tennessee over to the government of the United States. Congress accepted the gift and governed the country as a Territory until 1796, when the people, now nearly 60,000 in number, framed for themselves a constitution, and Tennessee was admitted into the American Union as the sixteenth State.

In the rapid and wonderful growth of Kentucky and Tennessee we see the first-fruits of the Westward Movement. Here out of the wilderness south of the Ohio had sprung up, almost overnight, two prosperous, populous, well-organized commonwealths, States that almost at once could hold their heads as high as the oldest and proudest of their sisters.

129. The Northwest Territory; the Ordinance of 1787.—While pioneers from Virginia and North Carolina were moving into Kentucky and Tennessee, emigrants from the Northern States were moving into western New York, or were crossing the Alleghanies and settling the upper valleys of the Ohio. The settlement of western Pennsylvania began even before the Revolution.¹ In 1770 Washington revisited the scenes of his early youth and found Pittsburgh a village of twenty houses. Fourteen years later he would have found it a town of two hundred houses and a thousand inhabitants. Western Pennsylvania filled rapidly with settlers, and soon pioneers began to float down the

¹Many of the settlers of western Pennsylvania as well as many of those of Kentucky and Tennessee were Scotch-Irish (p. 88). These hardy, industrious people were the vanguard of the Westward Movement. Among the Scotch-Irish were Mad Anthony Wayne, Daniel Boone, George Rogers Clark, Andrew Jackson, Thomas Benton (p. 236), Samuel Houston (p. 253), John C. Calhoun (p. 284), and Stonewall Jackson (p. 341).

Ohio in flatboats and build their homes on the soil of the Northwest Territory (p. 154). In a few years so many white people were living in this Western domain that it became necessary for them to have some form of government. So Congress (in 1787) passed the law known as the Ordinance of 1787, the most important law ever passed by a lawmaking body in America.

The great law of 1787 provided that, as the Northwest Territory filled up with people, it should be divided into States—not fewer than three and not more than five. Each State was to be governed according to the will of its voters; there was to be no slavery; religious liberty was guaranteed; education was to be encouraged; Indians were to be justly treated. When a community came to have as many as 60,000 inhabitants it was to be admitted into the Union as a State, with all the rights of the older States; during the time in which a community was too small for statehood it was to be governed as a Territory.¹

Such were the provisions of the Ordinance of 1787. The law breathed the spirit of freedom, and showed plainly that Western settlers could look forward to fair treatment at the hands of the national government. The Western communities were not to be dependent colonies; they were to be self-governing States.

130. The Beginnings of Ohio.—The first community to be built up in the Northwest Territory was Ohio. In 1788 a party of forty-eight New Englanders, the Pilgrim Fathers of Ohio, landed at the mouth of the Muskingum in a bullet-proof barge which bore the historic name of *Mayflower*. It was well that the barge was bullet-proof, for white men passing down the Ohio in boats were in constant danger of being shot by Indians lurking along the shore. The *Mayflower* party went ashore opposite Fort Harmar, where there was a regiment of soldiers. In the winning of Ohio, soldiers and settlers went hand in hand,

¹ Usually a Territory passed through two stages of government. In its first stage, when the number of its legal voters was less than 5000, it had no lawmaking body and was governed entirely by the governor, judges, and other officers appointed by the President. When the number of legal voters came to be more than 5000, the Territory passed into the second stage of government and was given a territorial legislature.

for everywhere through the Northwest there were Indians, and every acre of land won by the ax and plow had to be guarded and defended by the rifle.

Under the protection of the soldiers, the New Englanders began to fell trees and build houses, and to lay the foundation of Marietta, the oldest of Ohio towns and a place that in the history of the West holds a rank similar to that held by Jamestown and Plymouth in the history of the East. At Marietta the



Marietta, Ohio, in 1790.

wheels of territorial government for the Northwest Territory were set in motion (July, 1788). General Arthur St. Clair, who had climbed the rock of Quebec with Wolfe, and who was a warm friend of Washington, had come out as governor of the Territory.

Cincinnati was founded about the same time as Marietta. In December, 1788, twenty-six settlers landed at the foot of what is now Sycamore Street in Cincinnati, and began to build a town which they called Losantiville, but which afterward received its present name. Other settlements on the Ohio quickly followed those of Marietta and Cincinnati. The towns of Gallipolis, Portsmouth, Manchester, and South Bend all appeared within a few years after the founding of Marietta.

The Ohio settlers had to meet the Indians at every step, and as the white men became more numerous the red men became more troublesome. In 1791 Governor St. Clair was compelled

to march against the Indians, but near the place where the city of Fort Wayne now stands he suffered a terrible defeat. General Anthony Wayne—"Mad Anthony"—the hero of Stony Point (p. 141), was next sent against the red warriors, and at Fallen Timbers (in 1794) he met them and dealt them a blow that broke their power completely in Ohio and drove them from the country.

With the Indians out of the way, the settlement of Ohio could go on much faster. Towns began to be built farther up the streams and farther inland. In 1795 Dayton and Chillicothe were founded, and the next year General Moses Cleaveland, with a



Cleveland in 1800.

few companions, founded, at the mouth of the Cuyahoga River, a town to which he gave his name. In 1800 the original Northwest Territory was divided, and the eastern portion—the portion that is now Ohio—was set off as the Territory Northwest of the Ohio, and was given a territorial government of its own. The population of this new Territory was more than 40,000, and its people were already beginning to think of statehood.

QUESTIONS ON THE TEXT

1. What hindered the progress of the Westward Movement in colonial times?
2. What portion of the Western country was the first to be settled after the Revolution? Give an account of the explorations of Daniel Boone

in Kentucky. Give an account of the settlement of Harrodsburg. What was the early history of Kentucky County? Under what circumstances and when was Kentucky admitted into the Union?

3. Give an account of the Watauga settlement. What was the history of the State of Franklin? Under what circumstances and when did Tennessee become a State?

4. Give an account of the settlement of western Pennsylvania. What was the Ordinance of 1787? What were its provisions?

5. Recite the chief events in the early history of Ohio.

REVIEW AND READING REFERENCES

1. Dates: 1609, 1643, 1689 (2), 1781, 1787, 1789.

2. Places: St. Augustine, Jamestown, Saratoga, Philadelphia (2), Yorktown.

3. Persons: Raleigh, Smith, Stuyvesant, Bacon, Andros, Cornwallis, Lafayette, Hamilton, Washington, John Adams.

4. Tell what you can about: the Invincible Armada; the Jamestown colony; the founding of Georgia; the Frontier Line in 1700; in 1740; the Stamp Act; the treaty of 1783; the Articles of Confederation; the Convention of 1787; the beginnings of political parties; Jay's treaty.

5. Topics: To Kentucky by the Cumberland Gap: 23, 142-154. Daniel Boone: 6, 103-116; also 2, 273-282; also 12, 3-12. Beyond the mountains: 16, 182-193. The American Westward Movement: 19, 45-53. An old Kentucky home: 20, 133-144. John Filson: 14, 331. Nashville: 33, 477-502. Louisville: 33, 503-536. Rufus Putnam: 6, 138-149. The Magna Charter of the Northwest: 20, 145-152. Settlers on the Ohio: 20, 153-167. Wayne's campaign: 20, 180-187.

XXIII

OUR COUNTRY IN THE YEAR 1800

Oh mother of a mighty race,
Yet lovely in thy youthful grace!

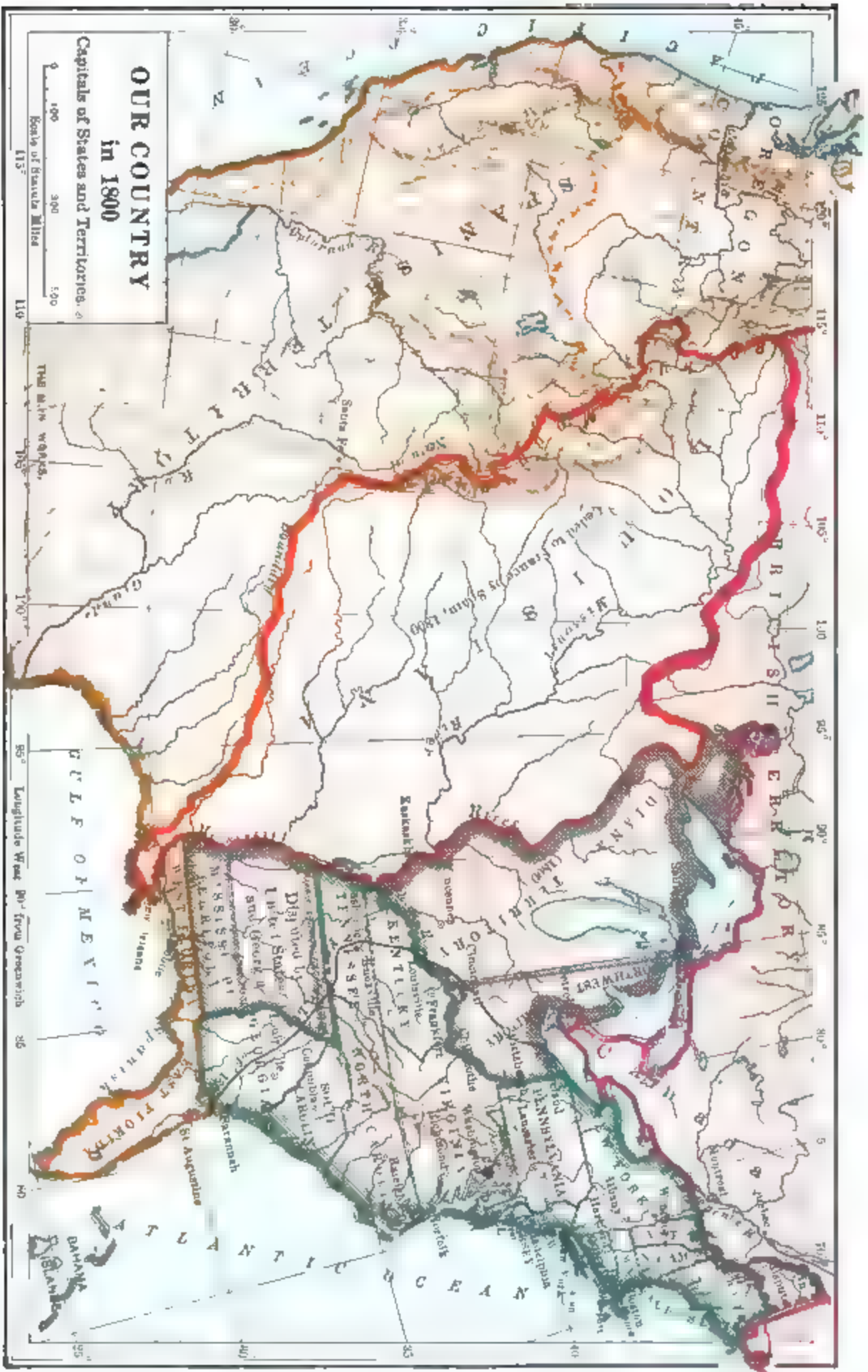
W. C. Bryant.

Introduction.—The story of our country's growth has now been brought down to the end of the eighteenth century. Beginning with Virginia, we have seen thirteen sturdy British colonies planted along the Atlantic coast. We have seen these colonies throw off the British yoke and become independent States. We have seen these States united by "the iron bands of the Constitution" into a nation, and we have seen that nation begin its career happily under the Presidency first of Washington and then of Adams.

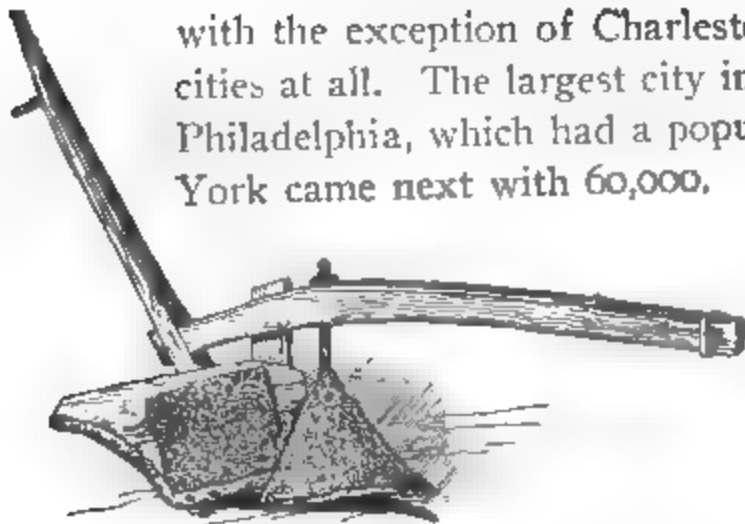
What kind of a country did we have in the time of Washington and Adams? We have learned (p. 80) what kind of a country British America was in the year 1700. What kind of a country was the United States of America in the year 1800?

131.. Frontier Line in 1800; Population.—The area of American civilization was vastly greater in 1800 than it was in 1700. In 1700 the Frontier Line ran very close to the seaboard. Nowhere had it reached the Alleghany Mountains. In 1800 the Frontier Line (colored map) was beyond the Alleghanies, and in some places it ran hundreds of miles west of these mountains. Beginning at Oswego, New York, draw a line to Cleveland, to Cincinnati, to Louisville, to Nashville, to Savannah, and you will have the Frontier Line in 1800. You will observe that by 1800 fully half the area of what was then the United States had been brought within the pale of civilization.

In 1800 the population of the region east of the Frontier Line was more than twenty times as great as it was in 1700. The Constitution provided for a counting of the people every ten years, and in 1790, when the first census was taken, the population of



the United States was 3,929,214; in 1800 it was 5,308,483. The people still lived scattered on farms and in little villages. Only one person in twenty lived in a large town or city. In the South,



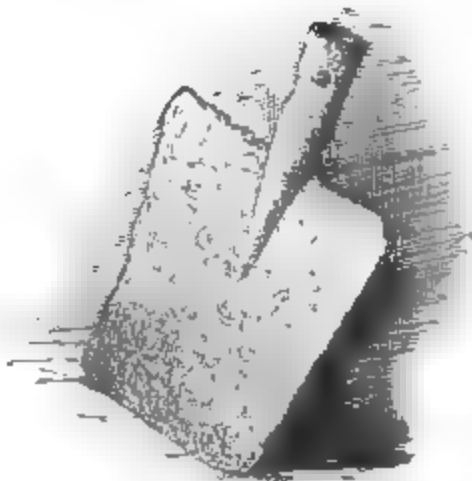
A colonial plow.

with the exception of Charleston, there were no large cities at all. The largest city in the United States was Philadelphia, which had a population of 70,000. New York came next with 60,000. Baltimore ranked third with 26,000, and Boston fourth with 25,000.

132. Agriculture.—

In 1800 we were a nation of farmers. More than nine tenths of the people were

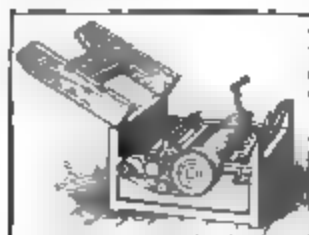
engaged in agriculture. The methods employed in tilling the soil were bad. Farmers seldom used fertilizers for improving their land. They tilled a piece of land until it would no longer yield a good crop, then they left it for a fresh piece. "Agriculture," said an observer, "does not consist so much in cultivating land as in killing it." Farm implements were such as had been in use for centuries, and they were of the rudest kind. The plow had a clumsy wooden mold-board and a clumsier wooden frame. A New Jersey man, in 1797, patented a cast-iron plow, but the farmers would not use it. They said it poisoned the soil and prevented the growth of crops. In about the year 1800 grain-cradles instead of sickles began to be used for cutting grain, and fanning-mills came into use for cleaning the grain after it had been threshed.



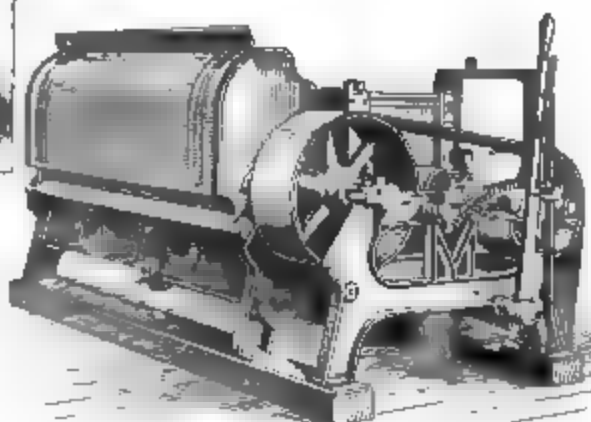
A hand-made spade.

Among the leading products of the farm were wheat, corn, tobacco, cotton, rice, beef, pork, tallow, butter, cheese, cattle, and horses. Wheat, cotton, and tobacco were shipped to Europe in large quantities. In 1802 the

tobacco and cotton sent abroad was equal in value to all other farm products combined. The production of cotton in 1800 was increasing at a startling rate. This was due to the success of Whit-



Whitney's first cotton-gin and the great cotton-gin of to-day.



ney's cotton-gin, which was invented in 1793. Before the appearance of Whitney's machine the fiber of wool of the cotton had to be separated from the seeds by hand, and it took one person an entire day to clean a pound of cotton. With Whitney's cotton-gin a person could clean a hundred pounds in a day. The effect of this invention upon the production of cotton was of

course marvelous. In 1790 we produced 1,500,000 pounds of cotton; in 1795, with the use of the cotton-gin, we produced 6,000,000 pounds.



Eli Whitney.

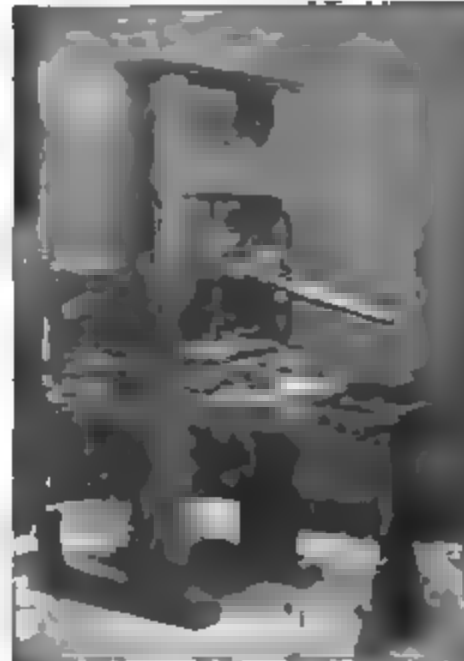
Born at Westborough, Massachusetts, in 1765; graduated at Yale; taught school in Georgia, invented the cotton-gin; died at New Haven, Connecticut, in 1825.

But Whitney's cotton-gin was to do something more than stimulate the production of cotton; it was to give new life to slavery in the United States. In 1790 slavery in this country was dying out. In the Northern States it was becoming unlawful to hold slaves at all, and in the Southern States it was becoming unlawful to import them from abroad. But after the appearance of the cotton-gin, slavery soon

became vastly more profitable than it had ever been before. Now that cotton could be so easily and cheaply cleaned, larger

fields were planted with it, and to till these fields a greater number of slaves was necessary. So the invention of the cotton-gin was not an unmixed blessing. It enormously increased the production of cotton, but at the same time it bound the South hand and foot to a system of slave labor.

133. Manufacturing.—In manufacturing we were depending in 1800 less and less upon England and more and more upon ourselves. In 1791 Alexander Hamilton reported that the manufactures of leather, iron, textile goods, potters' wares, paper, hats, oil, sugar, hardware, carriages, tobacco, and gunpowder were in a flourishing condition. There was also, he said, "a vast scene" of household manufacturing. Coarse cloths were made in the household in large quantities. In some parts of the country nearly all the clothing of the people was made by themselves in their homes. Still, in 1800 we could by no means stand on our own feet in the manufacturing industries. Most of the articles that required skill were still supplied by England.



Franklin's printing-press.

134. Commerce; the Post-Office.—The foreign commerce of the United States in 1800 was in a most healthy and prosperous condition. Europe at the time was aflame with war, and great multitudes of workmen had been drawn from the fields and factories to do service as soldiers. There was, therefore, a brisk demand abroad for our products, especially for our farm products, and we got excellent prices for our wheat and corn and meat. Our shipping interests were enormous, the freight earnings of American vessels amounting to more than \$30,000,000 a year. "The growth of American shipping," says H. C. Adams, "from 1789 to 1807 is without parallel in the history of the world."

Our domestic commerce in 1800 lagged behind our foreign commerce. Trade between the different parts of the country

was light. There was considerable commerce between the ports on the seaboard, and there was a brisk traffic on some of the rivers, but the overland trade, which now forms such a large part of our commerce, had hardly begun. To have profitable overland trade there must be good roads, and in 1800 there were very few good roads. In 1796 there was but one turnpike in



An early stage-coach.

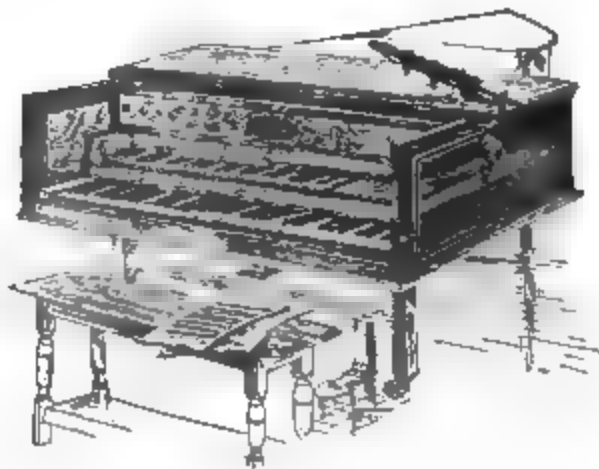
the United States—the one between Philadelphia and Lancaster. A traveler has left us a picture of the road between Philadelphia and Baltimore: "As the coach rolled over the rough roads the passengers were shaken like pills in a pill-box. The coach was in constant danger of upsetting, the ruts were so deep. In dangerous places the driver would call out to the passengers to lean this way or that, in order to prevent overturning. 'Now, gentlemen, to the right,' and the passengers would stretch their bodies half out the carriage to balance on that side. 'Now, gentlemen, to the left,' and all would lean to the left." Clearly where roads were as bad as this there could be no profitable movement of goods. In many cases, when the distances were great, it cost more to carry goods overland than the goods were worth.

In 1800 the post-office, that indispensable handmaid of commerce, had been established in all the inhabited parts of the

United States, but the postal service could not be good where roads were so bad and traveling so difficult. The mail was carried in passenger-coaches, and, if the roads were good, a speed of a hundred miles in twenty-four hours sometimes could be made. In the cities along the coast, mail was received daily, but people living far from the beaten roads of travel were lucky if they received their mail once a week. The postage was very high. For distances under thirty miles the postage on a letter was six cents; between thirty miles and sixty miles, eight cents; between sixty miles and a hundred miles, ten cents; and so on, the rate increasing until for a distance of five hundred miles the postage was twenty-five cents.

135. The Every-Day Life of the People.—When we come to look at the people themselves we find that our ancestors of 1800 were in many respects far behind their great-grandchildren of to-day. For example, in 1800 the mass of people had but little voice in matters of government. The right to vote did not belong to all grown men, as it does to-day, but only to certain classes of men—those who owned a certain amount of property or who held certain religious opinions.

The people of 1800 also were far behind us in matters of education. In respect to higher education considerable progress had been made, for in every State but one there was at least one college, and in some of the States there were two or three. But the colleges were for the rich and well-to-do, and not for the common people. The masses were woefully ignorant, the majority of them being unable to read and write. In no State was there a system of public schools in which all children, rich and poor alike, might receive an education. In the New England States there were more schools than in any other part of the country, but even there the schools were too



Harpsichord and flute in the Washington home at Mount Vernon.

few in number to educate all the children. Newspapers, which now do so much for the education of the people, were few, while public libraries hardly existed at all.

If we could go back to the year 1800 and get a glimpse of the people as they moved about in their houses and on their streets and in their shops and stores and factories, things would appear so plain and simple and strange that we should seem to be looking upon another world. We now live in a world of steam and electricity, but in 1800 steam was used but little and electricity not at all.

There were steam-engines to drive the wheels of factories, but there were no steam-cars or steamboats, and of course there were no electric cars or automobiles. The streets were poorly paved, and if lighted at all it was only by dingy lamps, for even the gaslight had not yet come into use. Within the home many of those useful inventions were lacking that now do so much to make life agreeable and comfortable. There was no telephone to keep the family in touch with the outside world. There were no sewing-machines to lighten the burden of the housewife. There was no hot-air furnace or steam-heater to keep the house properly warmed. A cooking-stove was seldom seen, and as for a match to start a flame, that was a thing as yet unknown.



Early newspapers.



A city street in old times.

QUESTIONS ON THE TEXT

1. Trace on a map the Frontier Line of 1800. What was the population of the United States in 1800? Name the large cities of that time.
2. Give an account of the state of agriculture in 1800 and name the principal products. What was Whitney's cotton-gin? What effect did this invention have upon slavery?
3. What was the condition of our manufacturing industries in 1800?
4. What was the condition of our foreign commerce in 1800? Of our domestic commerce? Of our postal service?
5. Give an account of the every-day life of the people in 1800, touching upon the topics of voting, education, steam, electricity, useful inventions.

REVIEW AND READING REFERENCES

1. Dates: 1664, 1754, 1776, 1787, 1789, 1792.
2. Places: Palos, Philadelphia (2), Schenectady, Fort Duquesne, Saratoga, Watauga.
3. Persons: Americus Vespucci, Balboa, Roger Williams, Cornwallis, Lafayette, Hamilton, John Adams, Boone.
4. Tell what you can about: Bacon's Rebellion; King Philip's War; the First Continental Congress; the Declaration of Independence; the Articles of Confederation; the Convention of 1787, the beginnings of political parties; Jay's treaty; the settlement of Kentucky; the settlement of Tennessee; the Frontier Line in 1700; 1740; 1800.
5. Topics: Eli Whitney: 8, 91-95. Stage-coaches: 17, 200-206. Introduction of manufactures: 18, 130-139. Cotton and slavery: 18, 115-128.

XXIV

THE ADMINISTRATION OF THOMAS JEFFERSON (1801-09): THE GREAT EXPANSION

1. Equal and exact justice to all men.
2. Peace, commerce, and honest friendship with all nations, entangling alliances with none.
3. The support of the State governments in all their rights.
4. The preservation of the general (national) government in its constitutional vigor as the sheet-anchor of our peace at home and abroad.
5. A jealous care of the right of election by the people.
6. Absolute acquiescence in the decision of the majority, the vital principle of republics.
7. The supremacy of the civil over the military authority.
8. Economy in the public expenses.
9. Encouragement of agriculture and commerce as its handmaid.
10. The diffusion of information (education).
11. Freedom of religion.
12. Freedom of the press.
13. Freedom of the person under the writ of *habeas corpus*.
14. Trial by juries impartially selected.

From *Jefferson's* First Inaugural Address.

136. The Election and Inauguration of Thomas Jefferson.— We saw (p. 166) that with the defeat of John Adams the control of the national government passed out of the hands of the Federalist party. It passed into the hands of the Democratic party, with Thomas Jefferson as the party chief and as the victorious candidate for the Presidency of the United States.¹

Jefferson began his term of office (March 4, 1801) in Washington, the new capital on the banks of the Potomac. The city, which is now the pride of the nation, was then a straggling village in a wilderness. The Capitol was unfinished, and the President's house (the White House) was in an open field and was hardly fit for occupancy. There were no good hotels in Washington, the streets were unpaved, and most of the conveniences and comforts of life were lacking. It is said that the President

¹ Two Democratic candidates, Jefferson and Aaron Burr, received the same number of electoral votes, and, according to the Constitution, neither was elected. The election then went to the House of Representatives, which elected Jefferson. Aaron Burr was chosen Vice-President.



The city of Washington in 1800.

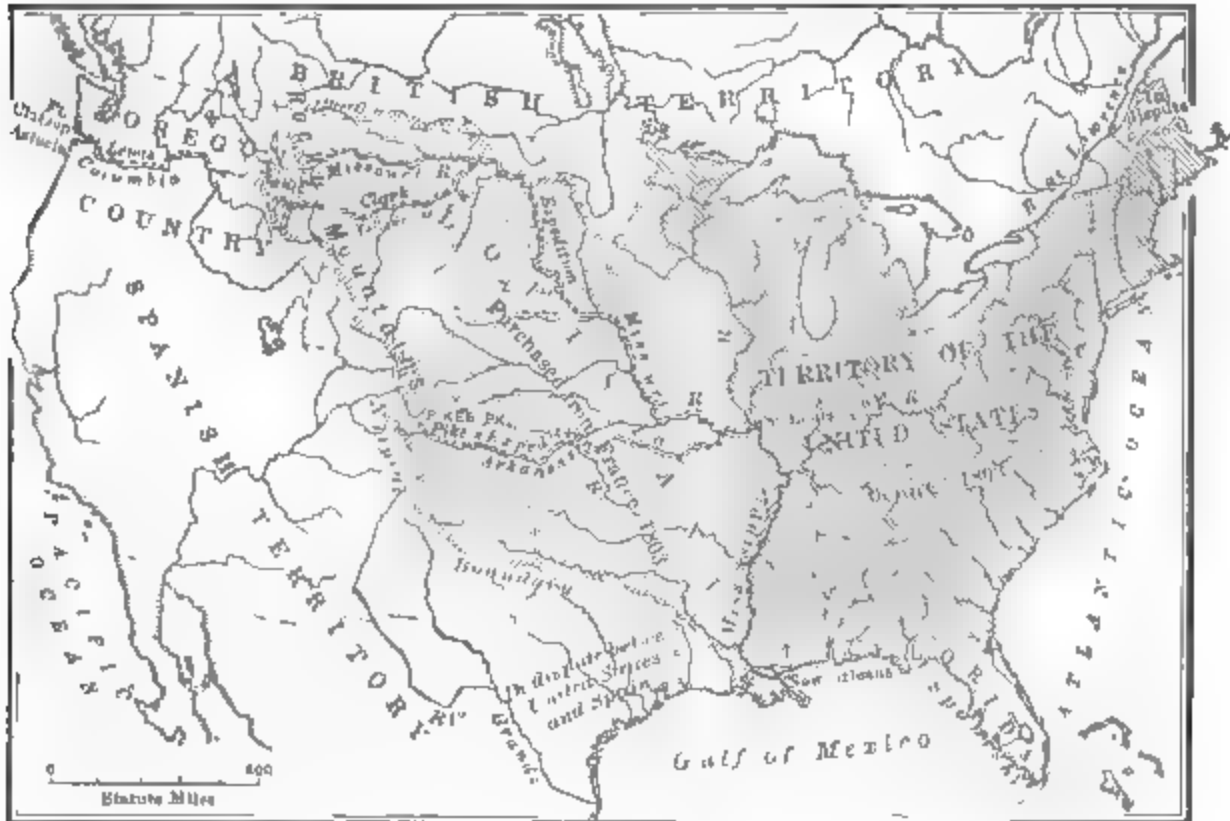
could not obtain for love or money a man to cut some wood for him in the forests which then surrounded the capital city.

Washington and Adams liked a little pomp and ceremony at the inauguration and at public receptions, but Jefferson wanted everything to be as plain and as simple as possible. His own inauguration was quiet and unpretentious. "He came from his own lodgings to the Capitol on foot, in his ordinary dress, escorted by a body of militia from a neighboring State." In his inaugural address Jefferson took great care to state what he thought were the essential principles of American government.¹

137. The Louisiana Question.—Jefferson was hardly in office before he was called upon to settle the Louisiana question, the most important problem that came before him while he was President. It will be remembered that the region between the Mississippi River and the Rocky Mountains, a region that was known by the name of Louisiana, had been given by the treaty of 1763 (p. 113) to Spain. In 1800 Spain secretly gave Louisiana back to France, and as soon as Jefferson heard of this he suspected that he might have trouble with France, just as Washington and Adams had had trouble with that country. Jefferson,

¹ These are found stated at the head of the chapter.

however, was a man of peace, and he did not intend to have war with France if he could help it. At first he would take no decided action in reference to the Louisiana question, but in 1802 he was



The United States after the Louisiana Purchase.

compelled to do something, for in that year the Spanish authorities, in violation of a treaty made with Spain in 1795, closed the navigation of the Mississippi to American citizens and took away from them "the right of deposit." This meant that Americans in the Ohio valley could no longer take their grain, tobacco, flour, and bacon down to New Orleans and sell them to foreign countries or even to American merchants along the coast. To close the mouth of the Mississippi was like locking the front door of a house which had no back door, and the people of Kentucky and Tennessee and Ohio flew into a rage when they heard what Spain had done. They threatened to take matters into their own hands and to march against New Orleans if the government at Washington did not come to their aid.

Jefferson saw the growing importance of the West more clearly than any other man then living, and it was not in his mind

to neglect the Western people. He desired to bring them relief, but he wished to do this by peaceful means. He sent instructions to Robert Livingston, our minister at Paris, to buy from France the little strip of land on which New Orleans was situated, so that the people of the West might have a place to land their goods. He also appointed James Monroe a special envoy to assist Livingston in making the purchase. Livingston and Monroe found that they could purchase for the sum of \$15,000,000 the whole of Louisiana, and they boldly did so (1803). When Jefferson heard what they had done, his feelings must have been like those of the man who shot at a squirrel and brought down a bear! The President had intended to acquire only a few square miles of territory for the deposit of American goods, and he had actually acquired a territory containing nearly a million of square miles, a region out of which afterward were carved thirteen great States—Louisiana, Missouri, Arkansas, Iowa, Minnesota (in part), Kansas, Nebraska, Colorado (in part), North Dakota, South Dakota, Montana (in part), Wyoming (in part), and Oklahoma (in part).

138. Explorations in the Louisiana Country.—Louisiana was an unknown land when the United States acquired it. All that could be said about it was that it was very large and very wild. What its boundaries were, what people inhabited it, what were its resources, no civilized man knew. Jefferson, soon after the purchase, took steps to explore the country and learn something about it. In 1804 he fitted out an expedition to explore the Missouri River to its head waters and to proceed thence either by land or by water to the Pacific Ocean. The expedition was placed in charge of Meriwether Lewis and William Clark, a young brother of that George Rogers Clark who had done so much for the glory of the United States during the Revolution (p. 142).

Lewis and Clark, with a handful of men, left St. Louis in May, 1804, and followed the Missouri to its far-off source in the Bitter Root Mountains. They then traveled by land until they came to the head waters of a stream that flowed toward the west (map, p. 188). Following this stream, they reached the

mouth of the Columbia River, and saw the waters like small mountains rolling out in the sea. They had done what many others had tried to do and had failed to do: they had reached the Pacific Ocean by traveling westward across the country which is now the United States. They returned by a somewhat different route, and reached St. Louis in September, 1806. They



Meriwether Lewis.

Born in Virginia, in 1774; died in Tennessee,
in 1809.

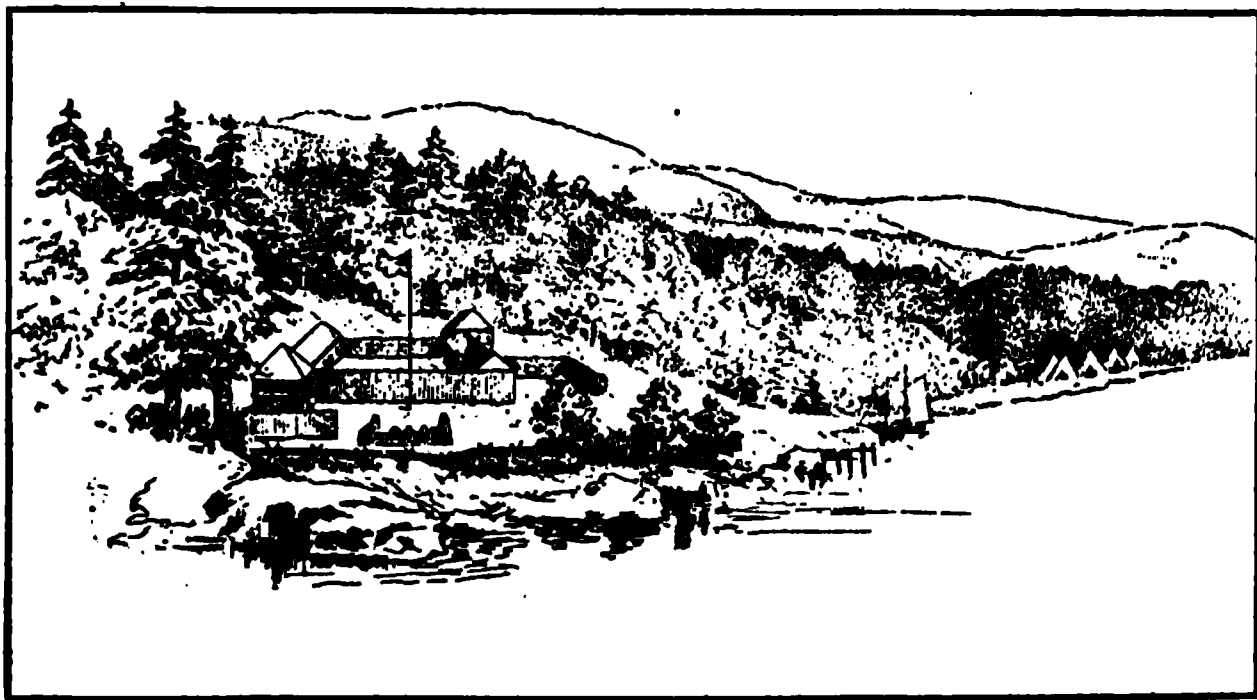
Clark and of Pike was to open up the region beyond the Mississippi to the fur trade. The hunter and trapper followed the path blazed by the explorers, and in a few years trading-posts began to appear along the route. In 1811 Astoria, at the mouth of the Columbia River, was built as a fur-trading station by John Jacob Astor, who by trading in furs laid the foundations of an enormous fortune.

wrote down from day to day accounts of their travel and experience, and from their journals the people of the East learned many things about the far West.

Just before Lewis and Clark returned from their explorations of the great Northwest, Zebulon Pike, with a few soldiers, set out (August, 1806) from St. Louis to explore the Louisiana country toward the southwest. Pike ascended the Missouri and Osage into Kansas, and then proceeded south to the Arkansas, which he followed until he came to Pueblo, Colorado, where he gave his name to one of the highest peaks (Pike's Peak) of the Rockies.

The immediate result of the expeditions of Lewis and

139. War with the Pirates. It will be remembered that at the opening of the nineteenth century the United States was



Astoria in 1811.

carrying on an immense trade with foreign nations (p. 181). Throughout his entire administration Jefferson was kept busy in protecting this trade from attacks by outsiders. First there were the pirates of the Mediterranean to deal with. The ports of Algiers, Morocco, and Tripoli were infested by sea-robbers who were accustomed to seize upon merchant vessels and demand a sum of money as tribute. If the money was not paid the vessel was plundered and the sailors were sold as slaves. Most of the nations preferred to pay the money rather than fight. The United States also paid the tribute for a while, but the pirates grew so insolent and asked so much money that Jefferson determined to fight rather than to pay tribute. So a war, known as the war with Tripoli, arose between the pirates and the United States. The struggle consisted of a series of sea-fights. It continued for several years and was brought to an end in 1804, when a treaty of peace was made which relieved American vessels from paying tribute to pirates.

140. The Unfriendly Conduct of England and France.—But the pirates were not the greatest enemies of the American trade during the Presidency of Jefferson. The greatest harm to the commerce of the United States was inflicted by two civilized nations, England and France. These ancient foes (p. 96) were at war,

and each nation tried to injure the trade of the other as much as possible; but in striking at the trade of each other they gave, at the same time, a heavy blow to the trade of the United States. Americans at the time were carrying on a thriving trade with the French West Indies. England ordered that neutral nations—and the United States was a neutral nation—should not carry produce from the French West Indies to France, and



The destruction of the *Philadelphia* in the harbor of Tripoli.

This ship, which had been captured by the pirates, was boarded by Lieutenant Stephen Decatur and a handful of men, and was burned, February 16, 1804.

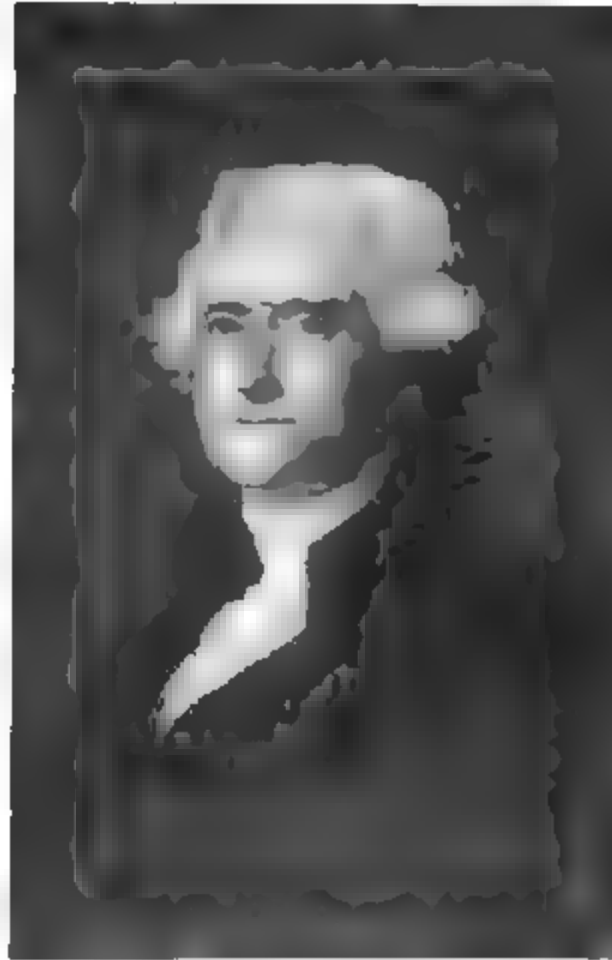
many American vessels that disobeyed the order were captured by English war-ships. Again, Great Britain declared that neutral vessels should not trade with those countries of Europe which sided with France, and many American vessels attempting to enter the harbors friendly to France were seized. As a return blow, France forbade neutral vessels to enter British harbors, and captured American vessels that disobeyed. So American shipping was ground between two millstones. More than a thousand American vessels were captured by England and France.

Besides capturing American vessels that were trading where

England did not want them to trade, English sea-captains would stop an American vessel of any kind and take from the crew such seamen as they thought were Englishmen, and would impress these seamen into the service of the English navy. The men thus impressed might be, and sometimes were, American citizens, but that made no difference to England; Great Britain was the mistress of the sea and could do pretty much as she pleased.

In 1807 a downright outrage was committed in the name of impressment. As an American frigate, the *Chesapeake*, was leaving the port of Norfolk, Virginia, the British ship *Leopard* stopped the American vessel and demanded the surrender of certain sailors who were on board. The commander of the *Chesapeake* refused to give up the men, and the *Leopard* opened fire, killing three and wounding eighteen of the American crew. This made the people of the United States very angry; but their navy was weak, and they had to be content with the half-hearted apology which the British government made.

141. The Embargo.—To remedy some of the wrongs inflicted upon American commerce, Congress (in 1807) laid an embargo on American vessels; that is, it forbade all vessels to sail from America to foreign ports. The purpose of the Embargo was to cripple the trade of England. That country had an immense trade with America, and Congress thought that if England were cut off from her American trade she would feel the loss so keenly that she would treat us better. But England



Thomas Jefferson.

Born in Virginia, in 1743; died in 1826.

paid very little attention to the Embargo, and it was soon found that we needed the trade with England quite as much as England needed ours. Upon the whole, the Embargo did more harm than good, and in 1809 the act was repealed and commerce was again free.

142. The Treason of Aaron Burr.—In 1801, when Jefferson was elected President, Aaron Burr of New York was elected Vice-President. Burr was an able man, but he was a restless and an ambitious schemer. In 1804 he killed Alexander Hamilton in a duel, and this act made him so unpopular that he left New York and went to the Southwest, where he entered into a plot to separate the country west of the Alleghanies from the older States and to found a new nation with himself as President. Jefferson kept himself informed as to what Burr was trying to do, and in good time he caused the schemer to be arrested and brought to trial on the charge of treason against his country (1807). The government failed to convict him of treason, and he was released.

In 1809 Jefferson's second term expired. He could have been elected for a third term, but refused the honor. Washington had refused a third term, and Jefferson thought that the example set by Washington should be followed by all future Presidents.

QUESTIONS ON THE TEXT

1. Give an account of the election of Jefferson. Describe the city of Washington as it appeared in 1800. Give an account of Jefferson's inauguration. What principles of government were laid down by Jefferson? (See quotation, p. 186.)

2. Why was it necessary that the United States should own Louisiana? Give an account of the Louisiana Purchase.

3. Describe the explorations of Lewis and Clark; of Pike.

4. Why did Jefferson wage war upon Tripoli? What was the result of the war?

5. What outrages were committed on American vessels by England and France during Jefferson's administration? Give an account of the impressment of seamen by England.

6. What was the Embargo of 1807? What were the results of this Embargo?

7. Give an account of the treason and the trial of Aaron Burr.

REVIEW AND READING REFERENCES

1. Dates: 1643, 1664, 1689, 1754, 1777, 1789, 1792.
2. Places: San Salvador, Charleston, Quebec, New Orleans, Bunker Hill, Saratoga, Watauga.
3. Persons: De Soto, Magellan, Virginia Dare, Penn, Champlain, Marquette, La Salle, Burgoyne, Hamilton, John Adams, Boone, Whitney.
4. Tell what you can about: the Puritans; the first written constitution; Queen Anne's War; King George's War; Burgoyne's surrender; the beginnings of political parties; Jay's treaty; the settlement of Tennessee; the Frontier Line in 1700; 1740; 1800; Whitney's cotton-gin.
5. Topics: The purchase and transfer of Louisiana: 19, 76-94. The Lewis and Clark expedition: 15 (Vol. I), 96-115; also 12, 69-96. Pike's explorations: 19, 199-206. Astor, the promoter of Astoria: 25, 279-299. The conspiracy of Aaron Burr: 15 (Vol. I), 116-147.

XXV

THE ADMINISTRATION OF JAMES MADISON (1809-17): THE WAR FOR COMMERCIAL INDEPENDENCE

If we fall, let us fall like men, fighting for Free Trade and Sailors' Rights.—Henry Clay.

143. James Madison.—Jefferson expressed a wish that he might be succeeded in the Presidency by his friend James Madison of Virginia. The leaders of the Democratic party took the hint, and Madison was elected President in 1808 and reëlected in 1812. Next to Jefferson himself, Madison, at the time of his election, was perhaps the greatest of American statesmen. We have seen him among the leaders in the Convention of 1787. His services in helping to frame the Constitution and secure its adoption were so great that he was called the Father of the Constitution. He was a leader in Congress under Washington, and for eight years, acting as Secretary of State, was the chief of Jefferson's cabinet.

144. England and France Continue to Harass American Commerce.—Madison had to face the same kind of trouble that had vexed Jefferson. France and England were still at war, and both nations were still capturing American ships and inflicting injury upon American trade. There was a moment when Madison thought the long trouble with these two nations had come to an end. The British minister at Washington, Erskine, promised that Americans should be allowed to trade where they pleased if the President would not enforce the Non-Intercourse Act, which followed the Embargo Act and which forbade American vessels to trade with England or France but permitted them to trade with all other nations. Relying upon the good faith of this promise of Erskine, Madison gave out the word that the Non-Intercourse Act would not be enforced and that American ships were free to trade with all foreign coun-

tries. In a few weeks a thousand American vessels, laden with wheat, rice, cotton, and fish, "spread their white wings like a flock of long-imprisoned birds and flew out to sea." But this freedom was short-lived, for word came quickly from England that a mistake had been made and that Erskine had promised more than he had a right to promise. So the Non-Intercourse Act was again put into force, and our relations with England became as unsatisfactory as ever.

145. Drifting toward War.—

The truth is, England and the United States had long been drifting toward war, and when Madison became President a clash was near at hand. Madison, like Jefferson, was a man of peace. His critics declared that he "could not be kicked into war." But Madison was unable successfully to withstand the war feeling that was rising in the United States. We were having a great deal of trouble with the Indians in 1811, and the people thought, perhaps without good reason, that England was secretly encouraging the savages to rise in rebellion against the Americans. Then William Pinkney, our minister to England, after years of patient effort to gain fair treatment from the English government, came home (in 1811) in disgust, and this withdrawal caused the people to think that nothing fair could be expected from England. Moreover, bad blood was stirred by an actual encounter (in 1811) between the American frigate *President* and the British ship *Little Belt*. But the thing that did most to create a war feeling was the impressment of our seamen; England still persisted in going aboard our ships and taking away our sailors.

In 1812 the storm that had been brewing for twenty years gathered and broke. In April Congress began to prepare for

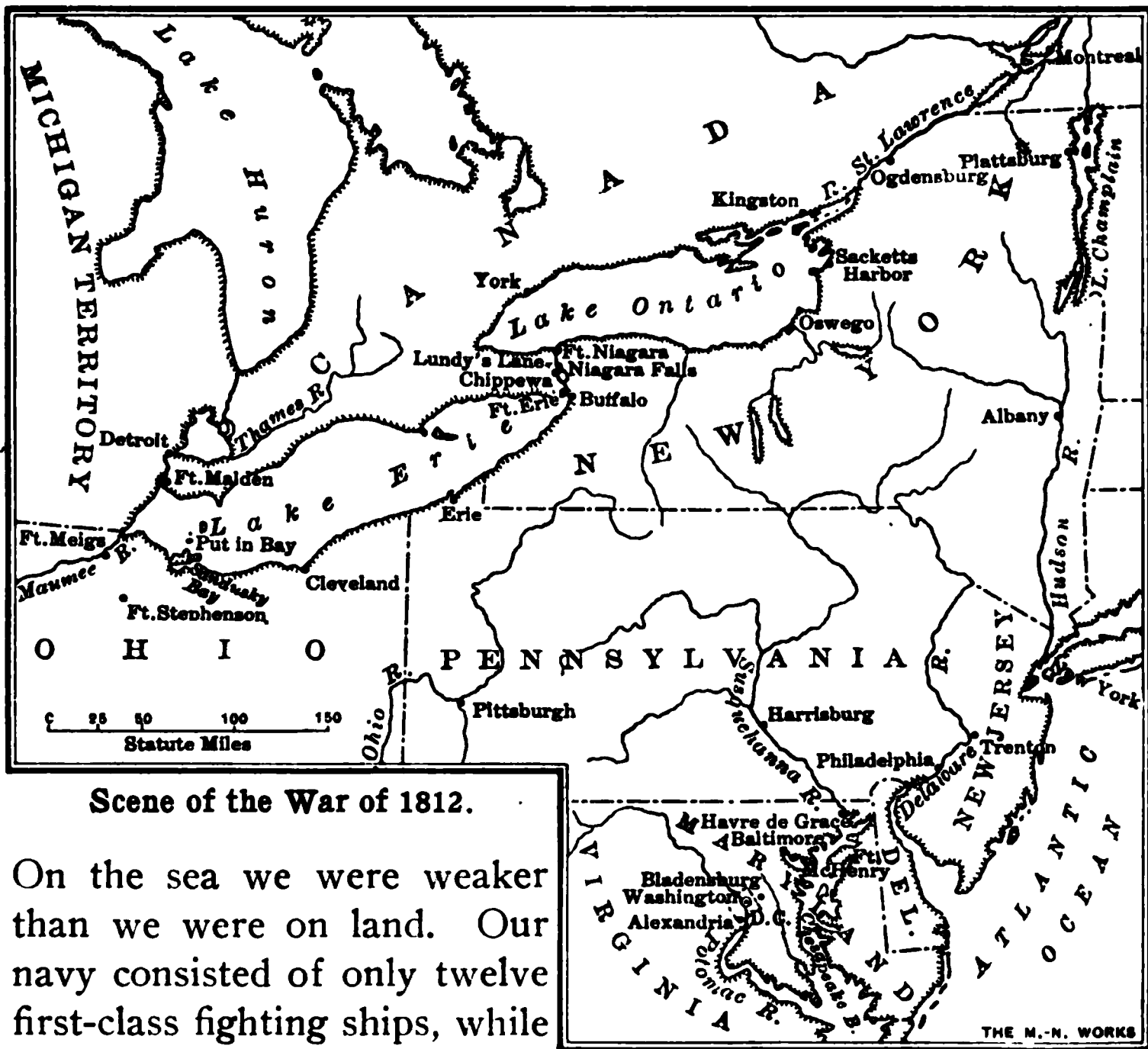


James Madison.

Born in Virginia, in 1751, fourth President, 1809-17, died in 1836.

war, and in June war upon Great Britain was formally declared.

The country was in no condition to go to war. The few soldiers we had were scattered through the West, at Detroit, Fort Dearborn, Fort Wayne, and other posts where they were needed to defend the frontier against the attacks of the Indians.



Scene of the War of 1812.

On the sea we were weaker than we were on land. Our navy consisted of only twelve first-class fighting ships, while our enemy had nearly a thou-

sand. Our military leaders were nearly all very old men. They had fought in the Revolution, but they had not commanded regiments in battle. Even worse than this lack of preparation for war was the divided sentiment of the country. In New York and New England the people did not want war. Massachusetts, Connecticut, and Rhode Island flatly refused to send their share of soldiers.

146. The Attack upon Canada.—In a war with England the

first thing we think about doing is to capture Canada (p. 127). The War of 1812 began with a plan for an invasion of our northern neighbor. Governor Hull, the governor of Michigan Territory, crossed from Detroit into Canada with about 2000 men for the purpose of taking Fort Malden. Hull had seen service in the Revolutionary War, but by 1812 his fighting days were over. At Fort Malden he became disheartened and retreated to Detroit. General Brock now approached Detroit with an army smaller than that of Hull, and demanded the surrender of the fort. In obedience to the summons the American general hoisted a white table-cloth as a sign of surrender, and Detroit and the whole of Michigan Territory passed into the hands of the British. Thus the first attack upon Canada ended in disaster. In a few months a second attack was made by the Americans in the neighborhood of Niagara, but the outcome was altogether discouraging. The Americans lost a great many men, but they failed to gain a single foot of Canadian territory.

147. The Struggle on the Sea and on the Great Lakes.—On the ocean the first year of war brought us much greater success than we had met with on land. Our navy, though small, was very plucky and active. It could not give battle to an entire English fleet, but when one of our ships found a British ship sailing alone there was apt to be a sharp duel, and victory in most of the sea duels fell to the American ship. The most famous of the sea-fights in the War of 1812 was that fought between the *Constitution*, commanded by Captain Isaac Hull, a nephew of the commander of Detroit, and the British frigate *Guerrière*. These ships met far out on the ocean and fought an old-time naval duel. The victory of the *Constitution*—"Old Ironsides," it was afterward called—was complete. In half an hour the British ship was a helpless and shattered hulk lying in the trough of a heavy sea, with water running into the barrels of her heavy guns. The result of this sea-fight startled the English nation. And well it might, for it was now certain that American war-ships could send the best of English war-ships to the bottom of the sea.

The success of our navy on the ocean was matched by

naval victories on the Great Lakes. England had a fleet of a dozen vessels on the upper lakes, and the Americans, under the leadership of Oliver Hazard Perry, a brave young naval officer



The fight between the *Constitution* and the *Guerrière*.

scarcely out of his teens, undertook to rid the lakes of the British ships. The American ships had first to be built. "The timber of the coming fleet was still standing in the woods; the ironwork, stores, canvas, and cordage were in New York and Philadelphia." But sleds and wagons brought the necessary materials through deep snows to the shores of Lake Erie, where the ships were to be built, and scores of wood-choppers and ship-carpenters were put to work. By July, 1813, five newly built vessels were ready to sail against the English vessels on the lakes. Perry came upon the British at Put-in-Bay, off Sandusky, Ohio, and one of the hottest battles in our naval history followed. At one time Perry's own ship, the *Lawrence*, was about to sink. The young commander made his way in a little boat to another vessel and kept up the fight until the

British fleet raised the white flag and surrendered (September 10, 1813). Perry announced his victory to General Harrison in the famous words: "We have met the enemy, and they are ours: two ships, two brigs, one schooner, and one sloop." This victory made it easy for the Americans to regain control of Detroit and the Michigan country.

148. Chippewa and Lundy's Lane.—In 1814 there was more fighting in the neighborhood of Niagara Falls. In July General Brown and young Winfield Scott—of whom we shall hear again—met the British forces just above the falls at Chippewa and defeated them. A few days later the two armies again met in battle at Lundy's Lane, where the roar of artillery was answered by the roar of the great falls near by. The fighting in this battle was fierce, but neither side could claim the victory. There were other battles along the Canadian border, but they settled nothing. The Americans made no headway into Canada, and the British could get no foothold on American soil.

149. The War along the Atlantic Coast.—Along the Atlantic coast the British throughout the war did all they could to destroy property and keep the cities in a state of alarm. In August, 1814, the British general Ross, with a trained army of 3500 men, landed at Benedict, on the Patuxent River, in Maryland, and marched upon Washington. The Americans, with an army of raw, untrained men, gave battle to the British at Bladensburg, but could not check the advance upon the capital. Troops under Admiral Cockburn entered the new Capitol building, and somebody climbed into the Speaker's chair and put the question: "Shall this harbor of Yankee Democracy be burned?" All cried "Aye," and the torch was applied to the building. The White House also was set on fire. There was no good excuse for these outrages, and England herself was ashamed of the conduct of her soldiers at Washington.

After the capture of Washington the British moved to a larger and richer city of Baltimore. But Baltimore was not prepared for the attack. The guns at Fort M'Henry could not allow the British to approach the city. All day and all night the British bombarded the fort, but could not capture it.

Francis Scott Key during the night had been watching the bombardment, and when in the morning he saw our flag still waving



Francis Scott Key writing "The Star-Spangled Banner."

from the walls of the fort, he was inspired to write our beautiful national hymn "The Star-Spangled Banner." The British fleet, being unable to pass the fort, abandoned the siege of Baltimore and sailed away.

150. The Hartford Convention.—We saw that the people of New England were from the beginning opposed to the War of 1812. Before the war was over this opposition showed itself in a rather ugly fashion. In December, 1814, a convention of twenty-seven delegates from five New England States met at

Hartford to consider the state of public affairs. After long discussion, behind closed doors, the convention made a report which strongly hinted that the time might come when the States would be justified in withdrawing from the Union. "Acts of Congress in violation of the Constitution," the report went on to say, "are absolutely void, and States that have no common umpire must be their own judges and execute their own decisions." Here was the doctrine of the Kentucky Resolutions, the doctrine of nullification (p. 166), over again. Nothing important came of the doings of the Hartford Convention, for the war ended almost before the report was made. Nevertheless the report caused the leaders of the convention to become very unpopular, and, since those leaders were Federalists, the convention did much to hasten the death of the already dying Federalist party.

151. The Battle of New Orleans.—Late in 1814 the British sent a fleet of fifty vessels and an army of 16,000 veterans under Sir Edward Pakenham against New Orleans. The purpose of Pakenham was to wrest the whole province of Louisiana from the United States. If the British should be successful in this purpose the great work of Jefferson would be undone and the United States would lose half its territory. Surely it was a great prize Pakenham was to fight for! The defense of New Orleans was given over to Andrew Jackson, who had an army of 6000 raw troops. Among Jackson's men, however, there were a great many Tennessee and Kentucky riflemen, who generally hit what they shot at. Jackson fortified the city by throwing up earthworks. After several skirmishes Pakenham made a last bold charge (January 8, 1815) upon the banks of earth. The Americans did not fire until the British were close at hand. Then the riflemen began to shoot, and whole platoons of the British fell in their tracks. In twenty-five minutes Jackson had won the victory. The British lost their commander and 2500 men. The American loss was 8 killed and 13 wounded. So Louisiana was saved to the United States.

152. The Treaty of Ghent; Results of the War.—If there had been such a thing as a telegraph system in 1815, the battle

of New Orleans would never have been fought, for two weeks before the battle occurred a treaty of peace had been agreed



Monument commemorating the battle of New Orleans.

The monument stands on the battlefield at Chalmette, where Jackson won his victory.

upon between the United States and Great Britain. This treaty, known as the treaty of Ghent (the city where it was drawn up), settled nothing of importance. Both nations were tired of the war, and the treaty was simply an agreement to stop fighting. Nothing was said in the treaty about the impressment of seamen, which was the chief cause of the war, and there was no giving up of territory by either side.

So far as outward and immediate results were concerned, both nations, at the end of the war, were precisely where they were at the beginning. Nevertheless the war was a good thing for the United States, since after the treaty of Ghent no nation ever again treated our commerce on the seas as if we were weaklings unable to defend our rights. The War of 1812 was truly the second war for independence—commercial independence.

153. The Tariff of 1816.—The Embargo of 1807 and the War of 1812 cut us off from the foreign trade and threw us upon our own resources. As a result there was an increase in our manufacturing industries. By 1809 we were making our own furniture, our own boots and shoes, and our own candles. In 1814 Francis Lowell placed power-looms in his factory at Waltham, Massachusetts, and it was not many years before the mills of New England were supplying us with all the cotton goods we needed. After the War of 1812, however, American manufacturers were compelled to compete with foreign-made goods. English manufacturers rushed into our markets with their wares "as if to the attack of a fortress." In order to shut out some of these foreign goods and protect American manufacturers, Congress in 1816 raised the tariff—the import tax—on woolen and

cotton goods and on carriages, shoes, and paper. It imposed this tariff not so much for the sake of revenue as for the sake of protecting American manufacturers in the home market. We may regard the tariff of 1816, therefore, as the beginning of the American policy of protection to home manufacturers.

QUESTIONS ON THE TEXT

1. Under what circumstance and when was Madison elected President? What qualifications did he have for the office?
2. Give an account of the promise made by Erskine.
3. What events showed that England and the United States were drifting toward war? When was war declared? Show that our country was unprepared for war.
4. Give an account of the invasion of Canada.
5. Describe two important sea-fights of the War of 1812.
6. What battles were fought in 1814 along the Canadian border?
7. Describe the operations of the British in 1814 along the Atlantic coast.
8. Why did the Hartford Convention meet? What was the action of this convention?
9. What was the purpose of the British in attacking New Orleans? Give an account of the battle of New Orleans.
10. What was settled by the treaty of Ghent? What was the chief result of the War of 1812?
11. What effect did the Embargo and the War of 1812 have upon manufactures? Why was the tariff of 1816 enacted?

REVIEW AND READING REFERENCES

1. Dates: 1588, 1643, 1733, 1754, 1763, 1781, 1792, 1803.
2. Places: Genoa, New Amsterdam, Fort Duquesne, Yorktown, Watauga.
3. Persons: Cabot, Drake, Calvert, Wolfe, Washington, Franklin, Braddock, Cornwallis, Lafayette, Boone, Whitney, Burr.
4. Tell what you can about the voyage of Magellan; the Seven Cities of Cibola; the Plymouth colony; the Albany Congress; the French and Indian War; the treaty of 1763; the treaty of 1783; the settlement of Kentucky; the settlement of Tennessee; the Frontier Line in 1700; 1740, 1800; Whitney's cotton-gin; the Louisiana Purchase; Lewis and Clark's expedition.
5. Topics: James Madison: 6, 230-238. Causes of the War of 1812: 3, 214-216. Capture of Washington: 3, 218-220. The battle of Lake Erie: 11, 158-172. The battle of New Orleans: 14, 323-325.

XXVI

ALONG THE OHIO RIVER: OHIO, INDIANA, ILLINOIS

To the blossoming banks of the "Beautiful River,"
And into the depths of the shadowy woods
Where the sun-lighted streams of the prairie deliver
The "Father of Waters" their silvery floods,
Undaunted by danger, unconquered, true-hearted,
With ax-beaten march the brave pioneers came,
And the wild tangled vine of the wilderness parted
As Progress swept onward with banners of flame.

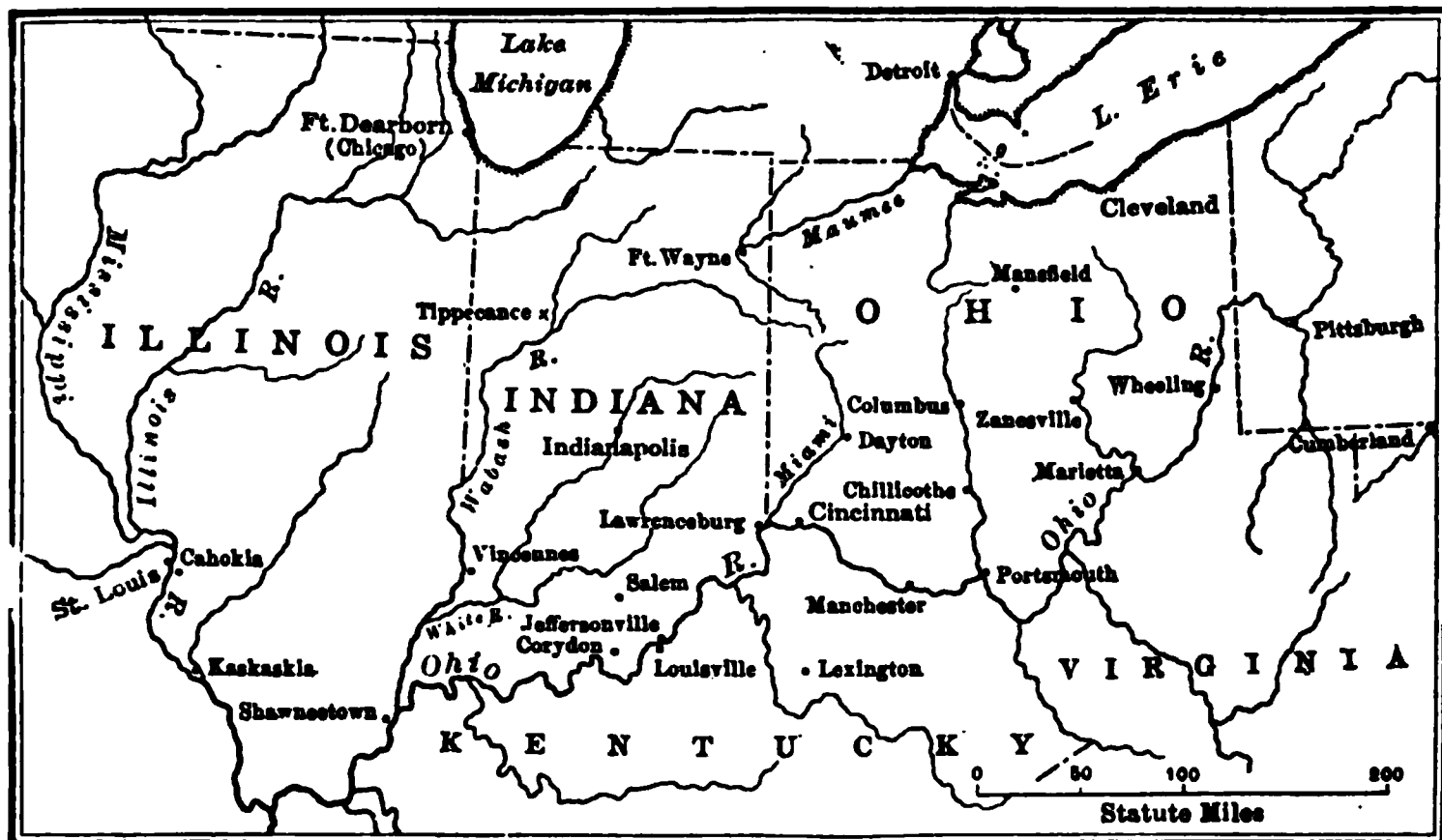
Lee O. Harris.

Introduction.—While Adams, Jefferson, and Madison were asserting our rights as a nation and achieving our independence in matters of trade, the great work of winning the West did not cease for a single day. We shall do well at this point, therefore, to turn back a few years and take up the story of the Westward Movement.

154. Ohio Becomes a State; the Sale of Public Lands.—When we left the story of the Westward Movement the eastern part of the old Northwest Territory had been set off as a separate Territory and was looking forward to statehood (p. 176). In 1802 Congress passed a law enabling the people of this Territory to frame a constitution for themselves. Accordingly, a constitutional convention met at Chillicothe and drew up a constitution. This was accepted by Congress, and in 1803 the Territory Northwest of the Ohio was admitted into the Union as the State of Ohio.

Now that it was a State, Ohio grew more rapidly than ever. A chief cause of its growth was the liberal policy which the national government adopted with respect to the public lands of the Northwest Territory. Congress, as we have seen (p. 154), could dispose of these lands as it saw fit. At first it sold the land only in large tracts, and nobody but the rich could buy. In 1800, however, it adopted a new plan. It divided the land

into small tracts and sold them at \$2 an acre, one fourth of the money to be paid in cash. So after 1800 a settler with \$50 in cash could become the possessor of a good-sized Western



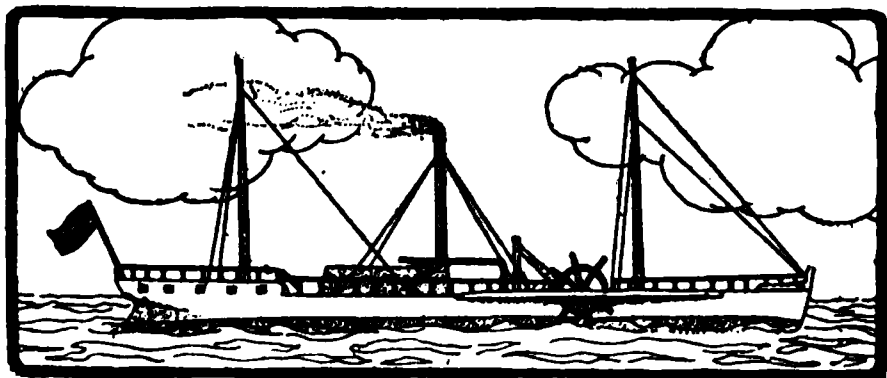
Along the Ohio River: Ohio, Indiana, Illinois.

farm. The cheap land attracted settlers of moderate means and caused Ohio and the whole Northwest to grow in population at a startling rate.

155. The National Road.—Another event that quickened the growth of the Northwest was the building of the National Road. When Ohio was admitted as a State, Congress promised to take a part of the money received for public lands in Ohio and use it for building a road over the Alleghanies. The promise was kept, and by 1818 a great national road had been built from Cumberland, in Maryland, to Wheeling, then in Virginia. From first to last Congress spent nearly \$7,000,000 on the National Road, and it was money well spent. On the smooth bed of the new highway travelers could move with ease and comfort, and goods could be carried over the mountains at half the cost at which they were carried before.

156. Steamboats.—The invention of the steamboat also played an important part in the building up of the West. As early as 1786 James Rumsey of Shepherdstown, then in Virginia, propelled

on the Potomac River what was perhaps the first boat that was ever moved by steam. The next year John Fitch was running a steamboat on the Delaware River. But the boats of Rumsey and Fitch were clumsy affairs and proved to be unsuccessful. The first really successful steamboat was built by Robert Fulton of New York. In 1807 Fulton's steamboat, the *Clermont*, made



Fulton's steamboat, *Clermont*.

a trip on the Hudson River from New York to Albany in thirty-two hours and returned in thirty hours. Fulton advertised for passengers, and his boat was soon crowded.

Within four years after the launching of the *Clermont*, steamboats began to be built west of the Alleghanies, and by 1820 Western rivers were alive with the new kind of craft. In 1830 there were more than 200 steamboats in the Mississippi valley, and by 1840 the number had increased to 500. This meant, of course, an enormous increase in the volume of trade. When the steamboat first appeared in the West the value of the produce received annually at New Orleans from the Mississippi valley was less than \$8,000,000; by 1830 the value of the produce had risen to \$26,000,000.

157. Indiana.—One of the first places to feel the benefit of the cheap lands and of the National Road and the steamboat was Indiana. When the Northwest Territory was separated (in 1800) the western portion was called Indiana Territory. William Henry Harrison was the first governor of this Territory, and the first capital was the old French town of Vincennes.

For a while the settlement of Indiana proceeded at a slow rate. The Territory was infested with Indians, and emigrants avoided it, preferring to settle in Kentucky or Ohio, where the Indian had been put down. Moreover, slavery did something toward checking the early settlement of Indiana. In the old French settlements slaves were still held, in spite of the Ordinance of 1787, and an attempt was being made to have Congress set aside

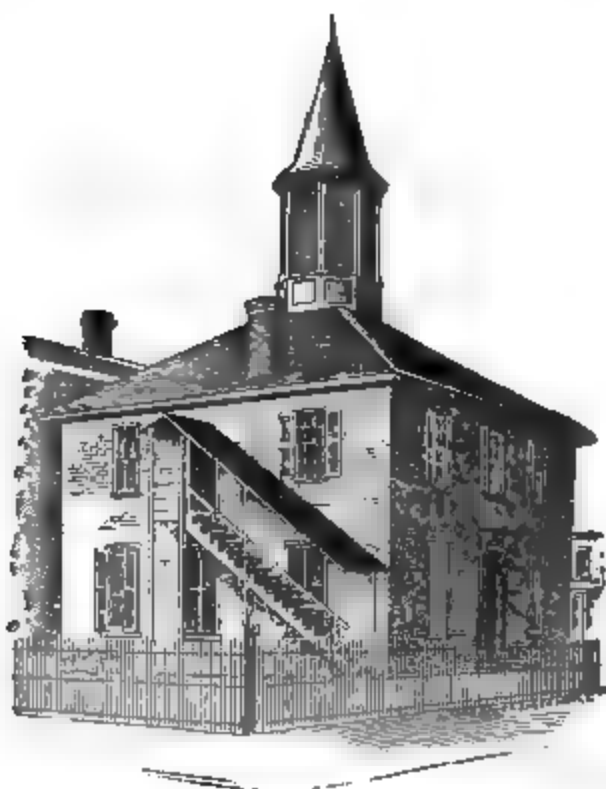
the Ordinance and allow slavery in Indiana. So those emigrants who held slaves would not take them into Indiana for fear of losing them, and those who were strongly opposed to slavery did not care to go where it might be permanently established.



Early steamboating on a Western river.

The people of Indiana at the outset, therefore, had to deal with the slavery question and with the Indian question. The slavery question was soon settled. Congress refused to change the Ordinance of 1787; slavery in Indiana was forever forbidden. But the Indian question had to be fought out. Governor Harrison tried to buy their lands of the Indians, but the red men did not care to give up their hunting-grounds, and they would not sell their lands. Worse than this, in 1811 the Indians under Tecumseh plotted to drive all the whites out of Indiana. Harrison called the plotters before him and accused them of conspiracy. Tecumseh met the charge fearlessly and was so defiant that there was nothing for the governor to do but march against the Indians and destroy them in Indiana as "Mad Anthony" Wayne had destroyed them in Ohio. This Harrison did when he met them in battle at Tippecanoe (November 7, 1811) and defeated them with great slaughter.

Now that the Indians were no longer to be feared, settlers came in faster, and by 1815 Indiana had enough inhabitants to become a State. In 1816 representatives of the people met at Corydon, then the capital of the Territory, and framed a State constitution. "As the weather was warm, the sessions [of the convention] were held under a great elm-tree, still (1879) standing in the town." The work of the open-air convention was



First State-house of Indiana, at Corydon.

accepted by Congress, and Indiana was admitted into the Union in 1816. The first capital of the State was Corydon. Indianapolis became the capital in 1824.

158. Illinois.—In 1809 Indiana and Illinois were separated, and the latter was made a Territory, with the old French town of Kaskaskia as the capital. In the conditions of their settlement and growth Indiana and Illinois were twin sisters. The slavery question came up in Illinois in the same

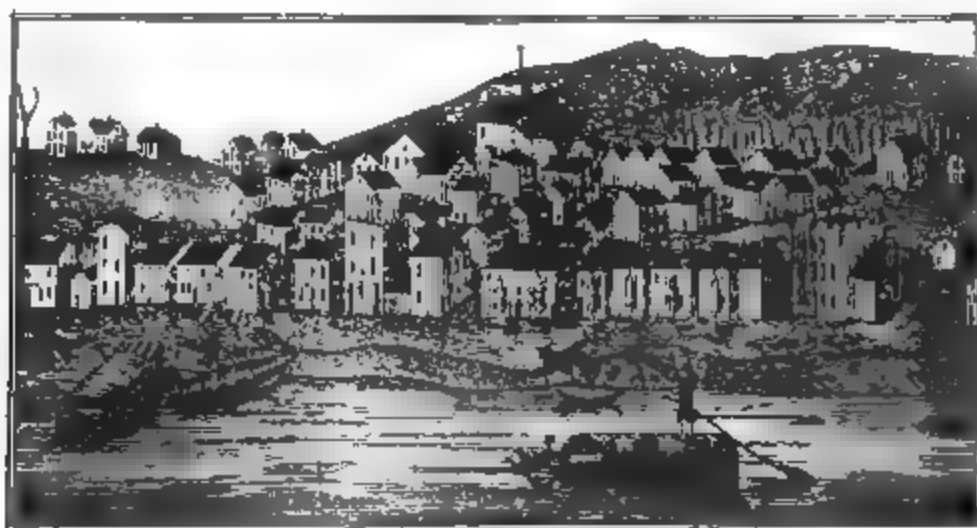
way that it came up in Indiana, and it was settled with the same result: slavery was not allowed. The Indian question in Illinois was for the most part settled by the battle of Tippecanoe, yet, during the War of 1812, at Fort Dearborn, on the present site of Chicago, there was a terrible massacre of white men. Not only soldiers, but women and children as well, were killed or taken captive by the Indians.

After Illinois became a Territory its population increased very fast. By 1811 steamboats were running on the Ohio River, and the trip from Pittsburgh to Shawneetown could be made in a few days. Roads through the Western country were by this time being built, and ferries and bridges and taverns were improving. Everything invited emigration from the older States. In 1809 Illinois had a population of 10,000; nine years later the Territory had a population of perhaps 50,000 and was admitted into the Union as a State.

159. Life in the Middle West in the Early Days.—We have now seen that within thirty years after the landing of the "Pilgrim Fathers of Ohio" at Marietta three of our greatest States

were carved out of the original Northwest Territory. In each of the States the growth in population and wealth was wonderful. In Ohio, in Indiana, in Illinois, forests and swamps disappeared, and in their places appeared smiling fields of wheat and corn. Hamlets grew to towns, and towns to thriving cities.

But these changes were not wrought by magic. These great States were built up only by the hardest kind of labor and by great sacrifice on the part of the early settlers. Life in the



Cincinnati in 1810.

Middle West a hundred years ago was not the pleasant, convenient, comfortable thing it is to-day. It was the plain, simple life of the pioneer farmer. "The farmer raised his own provisions; tea and coffee were scarcely used except on some grand occasions. The farmer's sheep furnished wool for his winter clothing; he raised cotton and flax for his summer clothing. His wife and daughters spun, wove, and made it into garments. A little copperas and indigo, with the bark of trees, furnished dyestuffs for coloring. The fur of the raccoon made him a hat or a cap. The skins of deer or of his cattle, tanned at a neighboring tanyard or dressed by himself, made him shoes or moccasins. Boots were rarely seen even in the towns. And a log cabin made entirely of wood, without glass, nails, hinges, or locks, furnished the residence of many a contented and happy family. The people were quick and ingenious to supply by invention and with their own hands the lack of mechanics and ar-

tificers. Each farmer built his own house, made his own plows and harness, bedsteads, chairs, cupboards, and tables."¹

These pioneers of Ohio and Indiana and Illinois laid the foundation of the great West, and they rendered a noble service in the upbuilding of our country. From among their own num-



A pioneer cabin.

In this cabin, in the town of Hardin, Kentucky, Abraham Lincoln was born, February 12, 1809.

ber and from among their children and grandchildren have come many of our foremost statesmen, soldiers, and scholars. Ohio shares with Virginia the honor of being the "Mother of Presidents"; Indiana is justly proud of many celebrated men; while from the rough life of early Ken-

tucky, Indiana, and Illinois there emerged the greatest American of the nineteenth century—Abraham Lincoln.

QUESTIONS ON THE TEXT

1. Give an account of the admission of Ohio into the Union. What was a chief cause of the rapid growth of Ohio? How did Congress dispose of the public lands at this time?
2. Give an account of the building of the National Road.
3. What was the early history of steamboat building in the United States? What was the early history of the steamboat on Western rivers?
4. Give an account of the early history of Indiana. How did Indiana deal with the slavery question? With the Indian question? Give an account of the admission of Indiana into the Union.
5. What was the early history of Illinois? When was it admitted into the Union?
6. Describe fully the pioneer life of the Middle West.

¹ Ford, "History of Illinois," p. 41.

REVIEW AND READING REFERENCES

1. Dates: 1609, 1689 (2), 1733, 1776, 1787, 1803, 1812.
2. Places: Providence, Charleston, Quebec, Saratoga, New Orleans (2).
3. Persons: Calvert, Oglethorpe, Whitney, Burr, Madison, Jackson.
4. Tell what you can about: the Line of Demarcation; the patroons; the founding of Pennsylvania; King William's War; the Stamp Act; the Articles of Confederation; the Convention of 1787; the Frontier Line in 1700; 1740; 1800; Whitney's cotton-gin; the Louisiana Purchase; the Lewis and Clark expedition; naval battles of 1812; battle of New Orleans; the treaty of Ghent; the Tariff of 1816.
5. Topics: Indiana Territory: 20, 205-213. Indiana as a State: 20, 239-246. Early Illinois: 20, 246-252. The battle of Tippecanoe: 14, 339. Henry Clay and the National Road: 25, 179-207. Tecumseh: 10, 117-176. The youth of Abraham Lincoln: 30, 3-28. Cities of the Ohio valley: 23, 111-128. Marietta: 34, 1-30. Cleveland: 34, 31-54. Cincinnati: 34, 55-86. Indianapolis: 34, 147-168. Chicago: 34, 197-234. The National Road: 23, 86-97. Fulton and the steamboat: 15 (Vol. I), 80-95.

XXVII

AROUND THE GULF OF MEXICO: LOUISIANA, MISSISSIPPI, ALABAMA. MISSOURI

By the side of the picture of the advance of the pioneer farmer, bearing his household goods in his covered wagon to his new home across the Ohio, must be placed the picture of the Southern planter crossing through the forests of western Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, or over the free State of Illinois to the Missouri valley, in his family carriage, with servants, packs of hunting-dogs, and a train of slaves.—*F J Turner*



The old New Orleans City Hall.

Introduction.—The story of the Westward Movement now takes us from the banks of the Ohio to the shores of the Gulf of Mexico and to the western bank of the Mississippi. During the years in which a kingdom of wheat and corn was rising in the Northwest there was rising in the Southwest a kingdom of

cotton and sugar: the rapid growth of Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois at the North was matched at the South by the rapid growth of Louisiana, Mississippi, and Alabama.

180. Louisiana.—When the great region of Louisiana came into our possession in 1803 it was at once given by President Jefferson to his young friend William Claiborne to be governed as he might think proper until Congress should provide for the Territory a regular form of government. Governor Claiborne took possession of Louisiana in the city of New Orleans in December, 1803. He met the French officials in the *cabildo* (or city hall), a building which is still standing and which a hundred years ago was probably the finest public building in America. After proclaiming that Louisiana belonged to the United States, the French governor handed over to Claiborne the keys of the city of New Orleans. The new governor then stepped to the

balcony and addressed the assembled people, assuring them that the United States received them as brothers, and promising them that they should be protected in the enjoyment of their liberty, property, and religion. When the governor had finished his address the French flag was lowered and the American flag was raised. Thus Louisiana passed from the power of France into the power of the United States.

In the beginning all the powers of government in Louisiana were placed in the hands of Governor Claiborne alone; he was the lawmaker, the governor, and the judge. But Congress soon provided a better form of government. In 1804 it divided Louisiana into two parts. The part north of the thirty-third degree of latitude—that wild and almost uninhabitable region which stretched away northward toward Canada and westward toward the Rocky Mountains—was called the District of Louisiana and was given to the Territory of Indiana to be governed. The part south of the thirty-third degree of latitude was called the Territory of Orleans and was given a territorial government of its own.

The population of the Territory increased very rapidly under American rule. Now that the Mississippi River was open and trade in the valley was free, the city of New Orleans became the center of a large trade, and in a few years its population increased from 8000 to 25,000. Under American rule, also, planters with their slaves began to move down from the older States and spread over the rich cotton and sugar lands of the lower Mississippi. By 1811 the Territory of Orleans had the number of people required for statehood and was admitted into the Union as the State of Louisiana, the first State carved out of the Great Purchase.

161. Mississippi.—By the time Louisiana was ready to become a State, a neighbor on the east was also asking admission. This neighbor was the Mississippi Territory, which was first organized in 1798 and which then consisted of a strip of land “bounded on the west by the Mississippi, on the north by a line drawn due east from the mouth of the Yazoo to the Chattahoochee River, on the east by the Chattahoochee River, and on

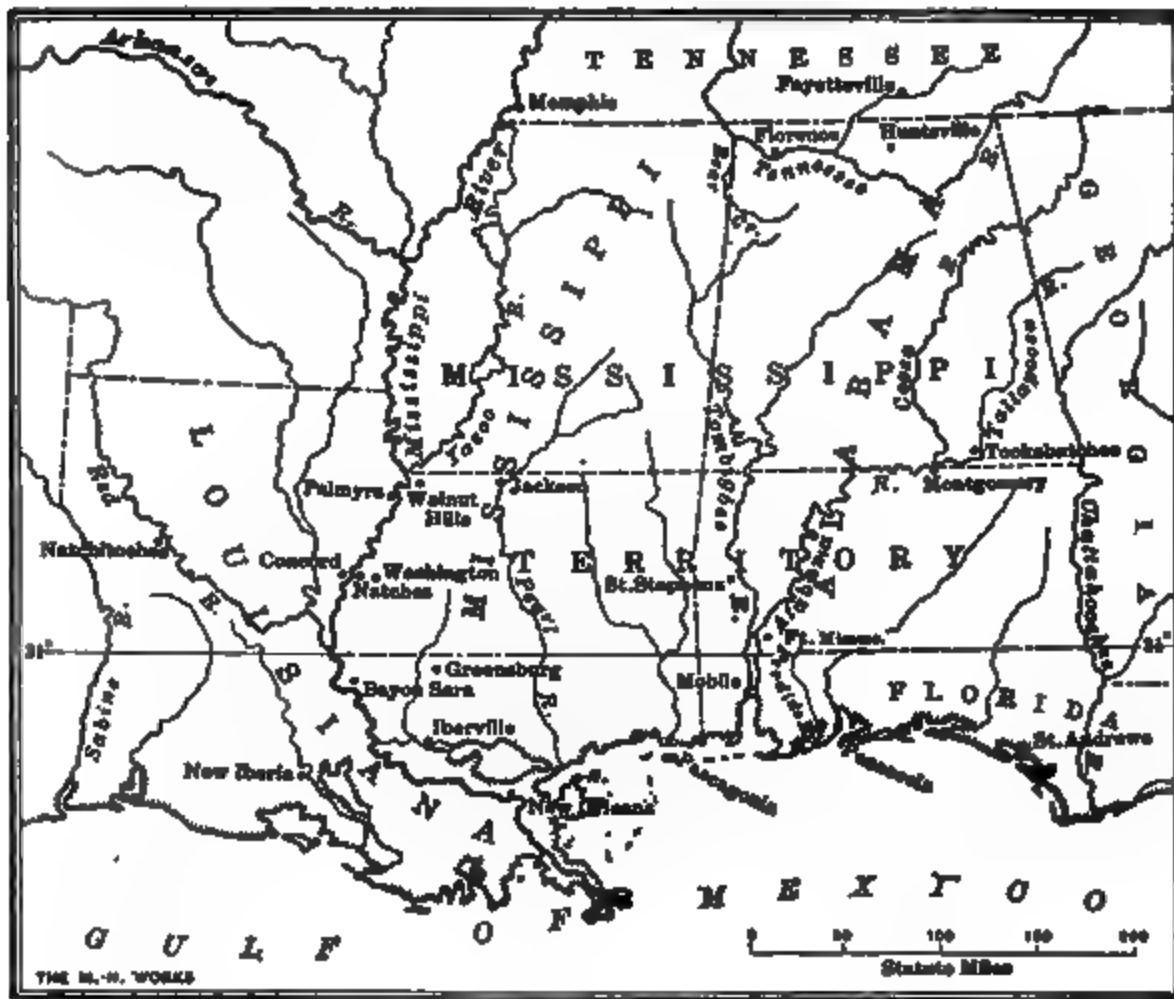
the south by the thirty-first degree of north latitude." Additions to this strip were made first on the north and afterward



Natchez sixty years ago.

on the south, and by 1812 the Mississippi Territory had come to include what are now the two States of Mississippi and Alabama.

In the Southwest as in the Northwest the early settlers had the Indian question to contend with. In 1811 Tecumseh, the chief who plotted against the whites in Indiana, went southward to plot against the whites in the Mississippi Territory. In October he attended a great meeting of Indians at Tookabatchee, on the Tallapoosa River. Here he made a passionate speech. He told the Creeks that the arm of Tecumseh would appear in the heavens like a pillar of fire, and the arm would be a signal for beginning war upon the whites. "I will go to Detroit," he said, "and when I get there I will stamp my foot upon the ground and shake down every house in Tookabatchee." Soon after this there was an earthquake, and the shock was taken as the stamp of Tecumseh's foot. At the time of the earthquake there was also a heavy thunder-storm, and the lightning was taken as Tecumseh's arm. These omens inflamed the minds of the Creeks



Around the Gulf of Mexico.

and caused them to take up arms against the whites. In August, 1813, they attacked Fort Mimms, where more than five hundred people, men, women, and children, had gathered for safety, and in a few hours nearly all within the fort were slain. The victors carried away the scalps of two hundred and fifty whites on poles.

The news of the massacre at Fort Mimms aroused not only the Mississippi Territory but the neighboring States as well. Georgia sent an army into the Creek country. Tennessee sent 1500 volunteers under Andrew Jackson. The Creeks were attacked on all sides. Jackson was the leading spirit of the war. He defeated the savages in battle after battle, spreading terror among them wherever he went. When he had finished with the Creeks their power was completely broken; they had lost most of their fighting men, and the best part of their lands had been

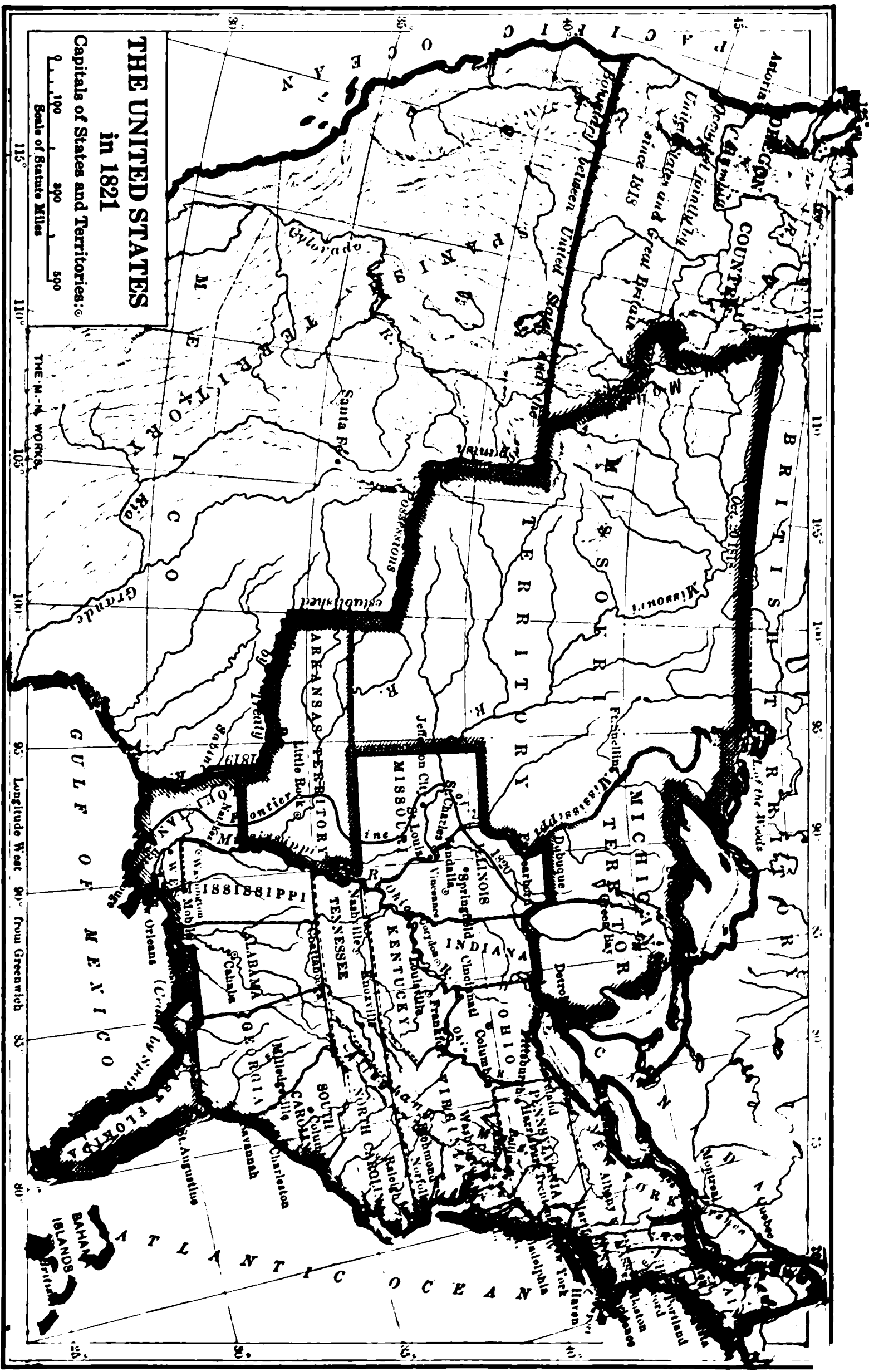
taken from them. The arm of Tecumseh had beckoned them on to their ruin.

After the war with the Indians and the War of 1812 had been brought to a close, the population of the Mississippi Territory increased more rapidly than ever before. By 1816 the people numbered 75,000. The Territory again applied for admission into the Union. This was granted, but the Territory was divided in accordance with the wishes of the people in the Tombigbee valley. The division line extended from the mouth of Bear Creek southward to the Gulf of Mexico. The part of the Territory west of the line was called Mississippi, and in 1817 was admitted into the Union, with Natchez as its capital.

162. Alabama.—When Mississippi Territory was divided, the eastern part was set off as Alabama Territory and was given a territorial form of government. But Alabama was soon to become a State. When the rich lands of the Creek Indians were thrown open to the whites, “the flood-gates of Virginia, the two Carolinas, Tennessee, Kentucky, and Georgia were hoisted, and mighty streams of emigrants poured through them, spreading over the whole Territory of Alabama.” Within two years after it was made a Territory, Alabama had a population large enough for statehood, and in 1819 it joined the Union. The first capital was Huntsville, although Mobile was the largest town in the State.

163. Missouri.—While the emigrants were pouring into the Gulf region and into the region north of the Ohio, there was at the same time a stream of population flowing into the great country west of the Mississippi. This region, as we have seen, was in 1804 given to Indiana Territory to be governed as the District of Louisiana. The next year, however, it became the Territory of Louisiana, with a territorial government of its own, and in 1812 its name was changed and it was called the Territory of Missouri.





THE UNITED STATES

in 1821

Capitals of States and Territories: c



Scale of Statute Miles

THE M. N. WORKS.

Longitude West 90° from Greenwich 85° 80°

No section of the West was better situated for rapid growth than was Missouri, for it could easily be reached by all the rivers of the Mississippi valley, while "straight across its broad territory ran the natural highway of its own mighty stream." Settlers, therefore, entered Missouri from almost every direction. Many came directly across from Illinois and Indiana, but the greatest rush was from North Carolina and Tennessee. Planters from the South took their slaves with them. Under such favorable conditions the increase in population was bound to be great. In 1810 the population of Missouri was 20,000; ten years later it was 70,000. Missouri was now ready for statehood, and accordingly was admitted into the Union in 1821.¹ Jefferson City was chosen as the capital of the State, although the largest town was St. Louis, which by 1820 was becoming the commercial center of the Mississippi valley.

164. The Changes of Twenty Years (1800-20).—As we follow the course of the Westward Movement, how wonderful and how great appear the changes which took place in our country in the early years of the nineteenth century! How different was the United States of 1820 from the United States of 1800! In 1800 the area of our country was less than a million of square miles; in 1820 it was nearly two millions of square miles. In 1800 our western boundary was the Mississippi River, while in 1820 our possessions extended to the eastern base of the Rocky Mountains. In 1800 the population of the United States was 5,000,000; by 1820 it had nearly doubled. In 1800 our population west of the Alleghanies was barely half a million; in 1820 it was nearly eight times as great. In 1800 the Union consisted of sixteen States; in 1821 it consisted of twenty-four States. In 1800 there were two States west of the Alleghanies; in 1821 there were nine. As State after State was admitted, the Frontier Line was of course pushed westward. In 1800 this line had just reached Cincinnati (see colored map, "Our country in 1800"); by 1820 it had crossed the Mississippi and reached points as far west as Jefferson City, in Missouri, and Little Rock, in Arkansas.

¹ The subject of the admission of Missouri gave rise to a great debate in Congress, an account of which is given in the next chapter.

QUESTIONS ON THE TEXT

1. Give an account of the transfer of Louisiana to the United States. What division of the Louisiana country was made in 1804? What contributed to the growth of Orleans Territory? When was it admitted into the Union?

2. When was the Mississippi Territory organized? What were its boundaries? Give an account of the uprising of the Creek Indians. What division of the Mississippi Territory was made in 1817? When was Mississippi admitted as a State?

3. What helped Alabama to grow very rapidly? When did Alabama become a State?

4. Give an account of the early history of Missouri.

5. What great changes took place in the United States between 1800 and 1820?

REVIEW AND READING REFERENCES

1. Dates: 1522, 1588, 1689 (2), 1787 (2), 1789, 1803, 1812.

2. Places: Plymouth, Philadelphia, New Orleans (2), Watauga, Marietta.

3. Persons: John Winthrop, Burgoyne, Jefferson, Burr, Madison, Jackson, Tecumseh.

4. Tell what you can about: Bacon's Rebellion; King Philip's War; the Declaration of Independence; the First Continental Congress; the beginnings of political parties; Jay's treaty; the Louisiana Purchase; the Lewis and Clark expedition; naval battles of 1812; the battle of New Orleans; the treaty of Ghent; the tariff of 1816; the Ordinance of 1787; the settlement of Ohio.

5. Topics: The transfer of Louisiana: 19, 86-94. Progress in Mississippi: 21, 127-138. Social conditions in Mississippi (1817-32): 21, 159-168. New Orleans: 33, 411-432. Mobile: 33, 327-378. Vicksburg: 33, 433-448. St. Louis: 34, 331-374.

XXVIII

MONROE AND JOHN QUINCY ADAMS

The Monroe Doctrine sets our compass and points the course which we are to steer through the ocean of time.—*Thomas Jefferson.*

THE ADMINISTRATION OF JAMES MONROE (1817-25)

Introduction.—After the admission of Missouri in 1821, it was fifteen years before another Western State was admitted. We therefore must leave for a while the subject of the Westward Movement and carry forward the story of national affairs from the point where that story was left off, that is, from the close of the administration of Madison (1817).

165. James Monroe, President.—Madison was succeeded in the Presidency by his Secretary of State, James Monroe, who was a Virginian by birth and who belonged to that group of great Virginians who stood so long at the head of national affairs. Monroe was not as great a man as Washington or Jefferson or Madison, yet he was fitted to make a good President. A more honest man never sat in the presidential chair. "If his soul were turned inside out," said Jefferson, "not a blot could be found upon it." Besides being thoroughly honest, Monroe was skilled in the management of public business. We saw him (p. 189) taking a leading part in the purchase of Louisiana. During the stormy years of Madison's administration it was Monroe who, as Secretary of State, attended to the difficult questions which arose between our government and foreign governments. So when Monroe entered (in 1817) upon his duties as President he was prepared by experience to take hold of affairs with the trained hand of a master.

166. The Era of Good Feeling.—Monroe found the country in a state of peace. Quarreling with foreign countries had come

to an end, and throughout the United States the people were thinking of industry and commerce rather than of war. Monroe, soon after his inauguration, made a tour of the country. He traveled through New England and northern New York, and pushed west as far as Detroit. Everywhere the people were



James Monroe.

Born in Virginia, in 1758; served in the Revolutionary War; member of the Virginia ratifying convention in 1788; United States Senator; minister to France; Secretary of State, 1811-17; fifth President, 1817-25; died in 1831.

glad to see him. The States, by 1817, were slowly becoming knit into a real nation, and the people beheld in Monroe the chief of that nation. "The farmer left the plow in the furrow, the housewife left her clothes in the tub and her cream in the churn, and hastened to see," not James Monroe the man, but James Monroe the President of the United States. So broad and generous was the spirit that began to prevail in Monroe's time that even the lines that divided men into political parties faded away. Because the people were united as never before, and because there was no party strife

during Monroe's administration, the years of his Presidency were called the "era of good feeling."

167. War with the Seminoles; Florida.—But Monroe's administration was not wholly undisturbed by war. Like all the Presidents before him and like many after him, he had trouble with the Indians. This time the trouble was with the Seminoles of Florida. This wandering tribe would rush up into Georgia, destroy property and human lives, and then return to their safe retreat in Florida, which then belonged to Spain. To put a stop to their outrages, Andrew Jackson, always the scourge and terror of the southern Indian, marched an army against the Seminoles and crushed them (1818). At the same time Jackson practically took possession of Florida. By nature Florida belonged to us, and sooner or later it was bound to pass into our

hands. Spain saw this and decided to sell the country to us. So, in 1819, Spain agreed to a treaty which transferred Florida to the United States for the sum of \$5,000,000. Florida was made a Territory in 1821, with Andrew Jackson as its first governor.

168. The Missouri Compromise.—Although the period of Monroe's administration was called the "era of good feeling," there arose during his Presidency a subject of controversy which caused more bad feeling than any other question in our history. This was the great slavery question. The question came up in 1818, when Missouri first applied for admission into the Union. The Northern members of Congress desired to keep slavery out of all the territory west of the Mississippi, just as it had been kept out of the Northwest Territory. It will be remembered that by 1800 slavery in the North was dying out; by 1820 it was practically dead. Slave labor in the North was not profitable, and, moreover, the freemen of the North were unwilling to work side by side with slaves. In the South, by 1820, slavery was beginning to be very profitable. In the Gulf States it was becoming the very life of industry, for in these States cotton-growing was the chief occupation, and no labor was so good for the cotton-fields as slave labor. So when the question of admitting Missouri came up in Congress, there was a sharp clash: the North wanted it to come in as a free State; the South wanted it to come in as a slave State.

The Missouri question was debated long and angrily, and it seemed as if the debate would never come to an end. At last, however, Congress found a way out of the difficulty. It happened that just at the time that Missouri was asking for admission as a slave State Maine¹ also was asking admission as a free State. Here was a chance for each side to yield a little to the other, and a compromise measure was agreed upon. It was agreed (1) that Maine should come in as a free State; (2) that Missouri should come in as a slave State; but (3) that future

¹ Maine had belonged but in 1819 it was given and admitted in 1820.

----- from colonial days (p. 54), as a separate State. It was

slavery was to be forever prohibited in the remainder of the Louisiana Purchase north of the parallel of latitude $36^{\circ} 30'$, the line which is the southern boundary of Missouri.

Such was the famous "Missouri Compromise," the measure by which Congress, in 1820, attempted to settle the slavery ques-



The result of the Missouri Compromise.

tion once for all. But the far-sighted men of the time saw that the slavery question would not be settled by the Compromise. Indeed, they saw that the Missouri question was only the beginning of a great struggle between the North and the South. "You have kindled a fire," said Cobb of Georgia, "which all the waters of the ocean cannot put out, which seas of blood can only extinguish." "This momentous question," said Jefferson, "like a fire-bell in the night, awakened and filled me with terror. I considered it at once as the knell of the Union."

169. How the Balance of Power between the North and the South was Preserved.—From the outset the slavery question was a question of votes in Congress. In the House, sooner or later, the South was bound to be outvoted, because there

States were represented according to population (p. 156), and population at the North was increasing faster than it was at the South. In the Senate, however, population had nothing to do with representation, because there each State, whether great or small, had two Senators. At the time Missouri was seeking admission there were eleven slave States and eleven free States. The slave States had control of the Senate, while the free States had control of the House. The Senate agreed that Maine should come in as a free State only because the House agreed that Missouri should come in as a slave State. After the Compromise there were twelve slave States and twelve free States, and the Senate could still check the House.¹ As long as such a nice balance could be preserved, neither the North nor the South could win a victory. In the admission of new States, therefore, each side took care that the other side should not gain an advantage, and it was by matching new free States with new slave States that the South was for a long time able to ward off

attacks upon slavery, and that the North was able to prevent slavery from making much progress.

170. The Monroe Doctrine.—Next to the slavery question the most important problem of Monroe's administration was one relating to foreign affairs. In the early years of the nineteenth century, Russia, already in possession of Alaska, was spreading



RUN away, on the 3d

Day of May last, a young Negro Boy, named Joe, this Country born, formerly belonged to Capt. Hugh Hunt. Whoever brings the said Boy the Subscriber at Edgemoor or to

the Work House in Charles Town, shall have 3 l reward On the contrary whoever harbours the said Boy, may depend upon being severely prosecuted, by

Thomas Chubbam.

WALTER DUNBAR, Per-

A newspaper notice of a runaway slave.

¹ No bill displeasing to the South could pass the Senate, because during the slavery the President of the United States, who is the president of the South who has the casting vote in the case of a tie.

her power along the Pacific coast wherever she could get a foothold. By 1812 she had advanced as far south as California, where she established a fort. In 1821 the Emperor of Russia laid claim to the shores of the Pacific coast as far south as the fifty-first degree of latitude. John Quincy Adams, Monroe's Secretary of State, informed the Russian minister that the United States would resist this claim, telling him that European powers would no longer be allowed to plant colonies either in North America or in South America.

These were indeed bold words, but it was not long before President Monroe himself had occasion to use words just as bold. In 1808 the Spanish colonies of South America began to rebel and to throw off the yoke of the mother country, and by 1822 Chile, Peru, Buenos Aires (now the Argentine Republic), Colombia, and Venezuela had won their independence and had been recognized by the United States as free and independent nations. Spain appealed to the great powers of Europe, especially to Russia, Prussia, Austria, and France, for assistance in regaining her lost colonies, and in 1823 it began to look as if the assistance would be given. But before the powers of Europe took any action Monroe sent to Congress a message which meant precisely what the words of Adams to the Russian minister meant. He declared in effect:

(1) That the United States would not look with favor upon the planting of any more European colonies on this continent.

(2) That the United States would not meddle in the political affairs of Europe.

(3) That the governments of Europe must not meddle in American affairs.

Such was the Monroe Doctrine, which to this day is regarded as good doctrine. What did it mean? It meant that the United States would not allow European nations to acquire new possessions on the American continent. It meant, in brief, America for Americans.

Monroe's words of warning were listened to with respect. England gave him her full sympathy and support. The nations of Europe did not interfere in the affairs of South America, and

since 1823 no European country has attempted to plant a new colony either in North America or in South America.

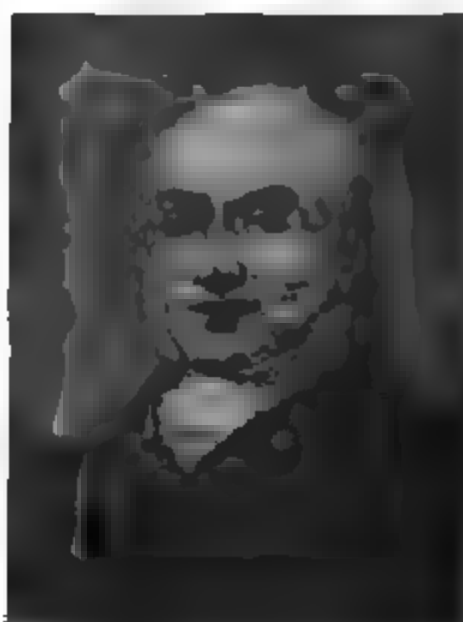
THE ADMINISTRATION OF JOHN QUINCY ADAMS (1825-29)

171. The Election of John Quincy Adams as President.—

Five candidates came forward in 1824 to succeed Monroe in the Presidency. These were Andrew Jackson of Tennessee, Henry Clay of Kentucky, John C. Calhoun of South Carolina, John Quincy Adams of Massachusetts, and William Crawford of Georgia. Before the election was held, however, Calhoun withdrew to become the candidate for Vice-President. When the electoral votes in the election of 1824 were counted, Jackson had received 99, Adams 84, Crawford 41, and Clay 37. Nobody had a majority, so the election had to go to the House of Representatives, as it had done in the case of the first election of Jefferson (p. 186). The House, in obedience to the Constitution, was compelled to choose from the three highest on the list of persons voted for by the electors. It could not, therefore, vote for Clay.

Clay was the Speaker of the House at the time, and of course had great influence with its members. If he could not himself be chosen, he could at least name the successful candidate. This he did; he threw his strength to Adams, and thus brought about his election. Adams was no sooner inaugurated than he made Clay Secretary of State. Thereupon the Jackson men raised a cry that a corrupt bargain had been made. Clay, they said, had helped Adams because Adams had promised to give Clay the highest place in his cabinet.

But the Jackson men were mistaken. No bargain was made,



John Quincy Adams.

Born in Massachusetts, in 1767, son of President John Adams; minister to the Netherlands, Prussia, Russia, and England; Secretary of State, 1817-23; sixth President, 1825-29; member of Congress, 1831-48; died in 1848.

for John Quincy Adams would not stoop to make a bargain. He appointed Clay simply because he thought the brilliant Ken-



Henry Clay.

Born in Virginia, in 1777; member of Senate; member of Congress; Secretary of State, chief designer of Missouri Compromise of 1820 and of that of 1850, died in 1852.

tuckian would make a good Secretary of State. The appointment was an act of duty, for Adams never left the path of duty. He was so faithful to duty and so strict and honest in his actions that he seemed to lean backward in his desire to do right. But he was cold and stiff in his manner, and it has been said of him that at every step he took he made an enemy. Certainly he was as unpopular as any man that ever sat in the presidential chair.

172. The "Tariff of Abominations."—Adams was unpopular with Congress, and

that body paid little attention to his recommendations. As a result, few things of great importance were done during his administration. Nevertheless, while Adams was President there came to the front a question which to this day has never ceased to occupy the attention of the American people. This was the tariff question. We have seen (p. 204) that in 1816 Congress increased the tariff on certain kinds of imported goods in order to keep these goods of foreign manufacture out of our market and thus to protect American manufacturers from foreign competition. In 1828 Congress still further increased the tariff on imported goods. The high tariff suited the people of the North, where there was a great deal of manufacturing, but it displeased the people of the South, where there was very little manufacturing. The South had only tobacco and rice to sell, and it desired to sell these wherever it could get the highest price, and it desired to buy manufactured articles in the

XXIX

JACKSON AND VAN BUREN

"The Federal Union; it must be preserved."—*Andrew Jackson.*

THE ADMINISTRATION OF ANDREW JACKSON (1829-37)

173. The Election of Andrew Jackson.—Jackson felt that he had not been treated fairly by Clay and Adams in 1825, and his defeat in that year caused him to work harder than ever for the Presidency. He at once announced himself as a presidential candidate for election in 1828. He resigned his seat in the United States Senate, and as a private citizen went before the people, asking them for their votes. Jackson was himself a man of the people; he understood men, and he knew how to win them to his side. Adams was the rival candidate, but in a race for popular favor the cold, dignified Puritan could hardly hope to win against the dashing, daring hero of the West. When the electoral vote was counted, Jackson had 178 votes and Adams 83.

174. The Character of Jackson.—Jackson was the strongest and most striking character of his time. The early youth of this remarkable man was spent in the backwoods of Tennessee. We have already met with him as the terror of the Indians of the Gulf States and as the victor at the battle of New Orleans. Jackson's early education was neglected. He could not spell correctly, and he could not write good English. In 1796 he appeared on the floor of Congress, a "tall, lank, uncouth-looking personage, with long locks of hair over his face and a cue down his back tied in an eelskin." In 1798 he was a member of the Senate, where he came under the calm eye of Vice-President Jefferson, who wrote of him: "His passions are terrible; he could not speak on account of the rashness of his feelings. I have seen him attempt it repeatedly and as often choke with rage." But Jackson outgrew this roughness and violence of manner,

and by the time he was a candidate for the Presidency had his temper well under control, and his manners were those of a polished gentleman. His will was so strong that it was terrible. When he once determined to do a thing, he hurried on to its accomplishment, and nothing could turn him from his purpose. Friends and foes alike were unable to shake his resolution, and friends and foes alike were trampled upon when they stood as obstacles in his way.

175. The Rule of the People.—The election of Jackson marked the beginning of a new era in American politics. In the early days of our Republic the management of public affairs was usually intrusted to a learned, aristocratic class. Only property-owners, as a rule, could vote (p. 183). It was generally



Andrew Jackson.

Born in North Carolina, in 1757; died in Tennessee, in 1845.

agreed that this favored class should lead and govern, and that the great mass of the people should follow and obey. But gradually the masses were permitted to take part in the business of government. In the new States men were allowed to vote even though they owned no property. So by 1830 the people, especially the people of the West, were coming forward as the real masters of the government.

Jackson saw this clearly, and it pleased him greatly. He liked the people and they liked him. When he became President he brought the people and the government close together. On the day of his inauguration Washington was crowded to overflowing with visitors shouting and hurrahing for Jackson. At the White House "the crowds upset the pails of orange punch, broke the glasses, and stood with their muddy boots on the satin-covered chairs to see the President."

176. The Spoils System.—In the service of the national government were thousands of postmasters, clerks, custom-house officers, and other officials. Before Jackson's time these officials were allowed to remain in office as long as they behaved them-

selves properly and did their work well. But when Jackson came into power he dismissed great numbers of these office-holders in order to make room for his own faithful followers who clamored loudly for office. He could do this with a good conscience, for he believed that in most cases no special fitness was required for public service. One man, he said, could perform the duties of an office about as well as another. Moreover, Jackson looked upon the offices as the spoils of political warfare, and he believed in the maxim, "To the victor belong the spoils." So he used the offices in his gift to reward his political friends, and the Presidents who came after him usually followed his example.

177. South Carolina and Nullification.—The tariff question, which began to give trouble under Adams, grew far more troublesome under Jackson. We have seen that the people of South Carolina, in their resentment against the tariff of 1828, resolved not to buy the goods of Northern manufacturers. Soon their resentment grew still stronger, and it was not long before they began to talk of destroying the effect of the law entirely by refusing to pay the duties on goods brought into their harbors. Could they rightfully do this? Could a State thus disobey a law

of Congress? This was the old question of nullification, which came up first in 1799 (p. 166) and later in 1814 (p. 203). In 1830 the question came up in the Senate of the United States and gave rise to one of the most famous debates in our history.

In this debate Senator Hayne of South Carolina spoke on the side of nullification. He contended that when the national government passed a law that was contrary to the Constitution of the United States, the State gov-



Daniel Webster.

Born in New Hampshire, in 1782; died at Marshfield, Massachusetts, in 1852.

ernment had a right to step in and prevent the law from going into effect. He also contended that each State was to decide for itself whether a law was contrary



Webster replying to Hayne.

From the original painting by Healy, in Faneuil Hall, Boston.

to the Constitution or not, and if a State found that a law of Congress was contrary to the Constitution, it had the right to disobey that law. Hayne spoke for two days and made a speech of great power.

Senator Hayne was answered by Daniel Webster, Senator from Massachusetts. Webster had served many years in Congress and was already famous as a statesman and orator. His reply to Hayne was one of the greatest speeches ever made in

the history of the world. He saw danger in the doctrine of nullification, and he attacked it with all the force of his powerful mind. As he spoke, his words seemed "to flow in a steady stream of molten gold." He denied flatly the right of a State to disobey a law of the United States. A law of Congress, he contended, must be obeyed by all the States and by all the people of all the States. He denied also that a State had the right to judge for itself whether a law was contrary to the Constitution or not. Only the Supreme Court of the United States had the right to decide that a law was contrary to the Constitution. "If each State," he said, "had the right to find judgment on questions in which she is interested, is not the whole Union a rope of sand?" And it was in behalf of the Union that Webster spoke. He felt that nullification would lead to the breaking up of the Union, and he closed his speech with a stirring plea for "liberty and Union, now and forever, one and inseparable."

But the people of South Carolina held firmly to their nullification views. In 1832 Congress passed a tariff law that was even more displeasing to the South than the "tariff of abominations." South Carolina now determined to act. The legislature of the State called a convention to decide whether or not the new tariff act should be obeyed. The convention met in Columbia in November and declared that the tariff acts of 1828 and 1832 were null and void—were without the force of law—and that they need not be obeyed by the State or by its officers or citizens. The convention went further and declared that if the government of the United States attempted to carry out the tariff laws within the borders of South Carolina, that State would withdraw from the Union and would have nothing further to do with the United States. In order to show that it was in earnest the State armed itself and prepared for war.

Jackson promptly informed South Carolina that the laws of the United States must be obeyed by the people of all the States, and he warned her to beware of the danger into which she was running. "If force should be necessary," he said, "I will have 40,000 men in the State of South Carolina to put down resistance and enforce the law." To a member of Congress

South Carolina he said: "Please give my compliments to my friends in your State and say to them that if a single drop of blood shall be shed there in opposition to the laws of the United States, I will hang the first man I lay my hands on engaged in such treasonable conduct upon the first tree I can reach." But no blood was shed. Before any blows were actually struck, Henry Clay, always ready to settle quarrels by a compromise, came forward in Congress with a tariff that was more favorable to the South. The tariff law as amended was passed, South Carolina obeyed it, and the nullification movement came to an end.

178. Jackson and the Bank of the United States.—At the time Jackson was having so much trouble with South Carolina, his first term was drawing to a close. He was growing old and feeble and did not really care for a second term. But there was one thing he had set his heart upon doing that he had not yet done: he desired before he left the Presidency to destroy the Bank of the United States. This bank had been chartered in 1816 for a period of twenty years. Jackson was always its enemy. So great was his hatred of it that he could not bear even to hear its name mentioned. In 1832 he refused to sign a bill to renew the bank's charter, which was to expire in 1836. The bank continued its efforts to secure a new charter. Jackson, in order to defeat the plans of the bank, consented to be a candidate for reelection. Clay, a strong friend of the bank, was nominated for the Presidency in opposition to Jackson.

It will be remembered that it was this bank question that caused the people to divide into two political parties in Washington's time (p. 162). In 1832 also the bank question caused a sharp division. The enemies of the bank, the Jackson men, belonged to the old Democratic party; the friends of the bank, the Clay men, took the name of National Republicans.

The presidential election of 1832 was remarkable for several reasons. It was the first election in which the candidates were nominated by great national conventions as they are now. It was also the first election in which the parties set forth their platforms as they do now. Then, too, the candidates were remarkable men. Clay was a popular

hero as well as Jackson. He was the idol of Kentucky, and a great favorite in all parts of the country. As an orator he was second only to Webster. In Congress, whether in the House or in the Senate, he was always the leader. Yet in a political fight he was no match for "Old Hickory," as Jackson was often called. When the result of the election of 1832 was made known, Jackson had 219 electoral votes and Clay 49.

After this victory at the polls, Jackson's warfare upon the bank became more bitter than ever. In 1833 he ordered the collectors of United States revenue to deposit no more money in the bank, and the money that was already on deposit—about \$10,000,000—he caused to be drawn out. The bank of course fought for its life, but its struggle was in vain; it expired with its charter in 1836.

In 1834 the Senate passed a resolution censuring Jackson for removing the public money deposited in the bank. This censure stung Jackson deeply, and he determined to have this resolution of censure expunged from the journal of the Senate. His friend in the Senate, Thomas Hart Benton of Missouri, took the matter up, and after three years of patient effort succeeded in having the resolution of censure expunged. The manuscript journal was brought into the Senate, and black lines were drawn around the resolution of censure, and across its face were written the



"The Hermitage," the home of Andrew Jackson.

words: "Expunged by order of the Senate, the sixteenth day of January in the year of our Lord 1837." Jackson could now go

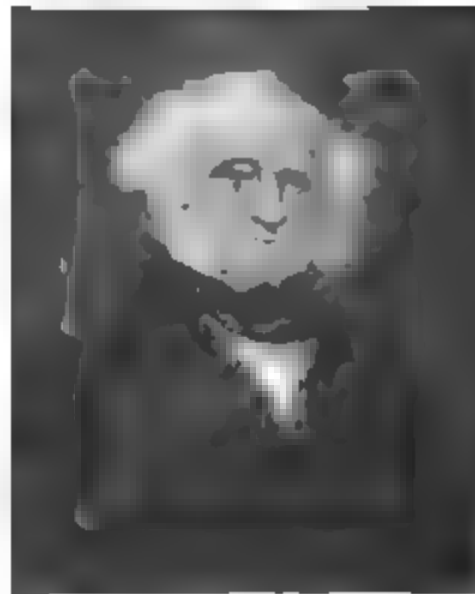
back to his home in Tennessee and die in peace. The Bank of the United States was destroyed, and the hateful words of the Senate's censure were blotted out.

THE ADMINISTRATION OF MARTIN VAN BUREN (1837-41)

179. The Panic of 1837; the Independent Treasury.—When Jackson left the Presidency he enjoyed the confidence of the people and he had full control of his party. He therefore could easily name the man who was to succeed him in the presidential chair, and this he did not hesitate to do. In the election of 1836 he chose as his candidate for President Martin Van Buren of New York, and Van Buren was elected.

At his inauguration Van Buren promised the people that he would "tread in the footsteps of his illustrious predecessor." The new President, however, was to learn that Jackson had not left him a path of roses in which to tread. He had scarcely entered upon his duties when he had to face a panic—a period of "hard times." The year 1837 was one of great distress throughout the country. Mills and factories were shut down, business houses closed their doors, workmen were thrown out of employment, and in the larger cities thousands suffered for want of food. Everywhere money was scarce and prices high.

The causes of a panic are always hard to understand, but, whatever the real causes may be, the party in power is generally held responsible for bringing it on. So the Democratic party was blamed for the hard times of 1837. Van Buren was appealed to by the people and was begged to bring back the good times. Of course there was little the President could do, but he did what he could. Among other things, he urged Congress to establish what is called an Independent Treasury. At the



Martin Van Buren.

Born at Kinderhook, New York, in 1782; governor of New York, 1828-29; Secretary of State, 1829-31; sent as minister to Great Britain in 1831, Vice-President, 1833-37; eighth President, 1837-41; died in 1862.

ent of the United States kept its

money in State banks, but the plan was not satisfactory. Van Buren recommended that the government establish a treasury at Washington, with subtreasuries in the chief cities, and that it should keep its own money in its own vaults. This Congress finally (in 1840) consented to do. The panic of 1837 soon passed by, but the Independent Treasury system established by Van Buren remained, and is the system we have to-day.

QUESTIONS ON THE TEXT

1. Give an account of the presidential election of 1828.
2. Describe the character of Jackson.
3. Give an account of the growth of the people's power in matters of government.
4. Explain how and why the "spoils system" was introduced.
5. What caused South Carolina to begin a nullification movement? Give an account of the debate between Hayne and Webster. Describe the nullification movement of 1832. What was Jackson's attitude toward nullification?
6. Why did Jackson consent to be a candidate for reelection? Name the two powerful political parties in 1832. In what respects was the election of 1832 remarkable? What did Jackson do to destroy the Bank of the United States? Give an account of the censure that was passed upon Jackson.
7. What circumstance favored the election of Van Buren? Give an account of the panic of 1837. Describe the Independent Treasury system.

REVIEW AND READING REFERENCES

1. Dates: 1607, 1643, 1682 (2), 1781, 1787, 1812, 1821.
2. Places: Palos, Schenectady, Quebec, New Orleans (3), Bunker Hill, Yorktown, Marietta.
3. Persons: Americus Vespucius, Roger Williams, Cornwallis, Lafayette, Whitney, Tecumseh, Monroe, J. Q. Adams.
4. Tell what you can about: the Invincible Armada; Queen Anne's War; King George's War; the Frontier Line in 1700; 1740; 1800; 1820; Whitney's cotton-gin; the settlement of Ohio; the Ordinance of 1787; the tariff of abominations; the Missouri Compromise; the Monroe Doctrine.
5. Topics: Jackson: 22, 201-208. Daniel Webster: 8, 129-138. John C. Calhoun: 8, 138-145; also 22, 241-247. Henry Clay: 8, 120-129.

XXX

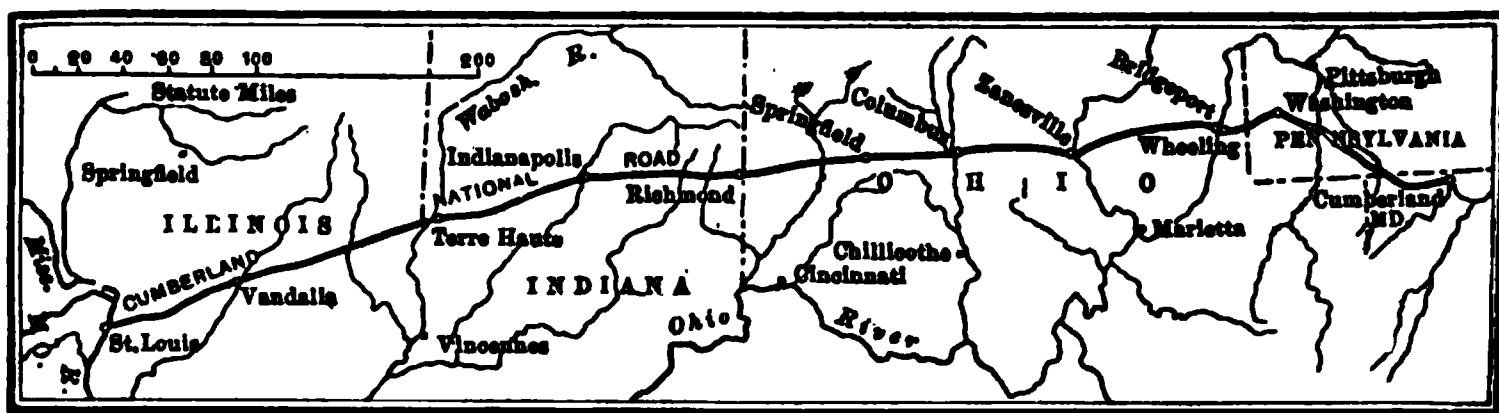
DEVELOPMENT BETWEEN 1820 AND 1840

For my part, I wish sincerely that every door to the territory west of us may be set wide open that the commercial intercourse may be rendered as free and easy as possible. This, in my judgment, is the best if not the only cement that can bind the people to us for any length of time.

George Washington.

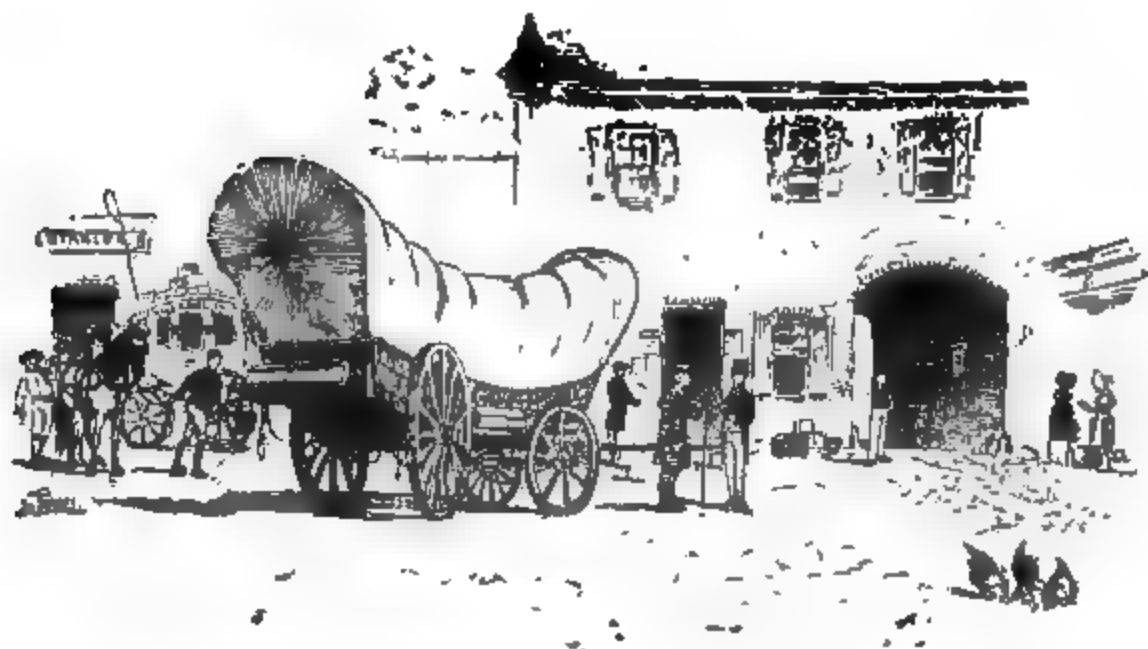
Introduction.—In the last two chapters we followed the course of our political history from the beginning of Monroe's administration to the close of Van Buren's, a period of nearly a quarter of a century. During this period development went steadily on, and wealth and population increased at a wonderful rate. We must, therefore, at this point turn back and trace the steps of our growth between 1820 and 1840.

180. The Extension of the National Road.—A marked feature of our progress between 1820 and 1840 consisted in improving the means of communication between the different parts of the country. One great improvement was the extension of the National Road. We saw (p. 207) that by 1818 this road had reached Wheeling. In 1824 plans were laid for extending it still farther westward, and by 1840 it had passed through Zanesville and Columbus, in Ohio; through Richmond, Indianapolis, and Terre Haute, in Indiana; through Vandalia, in Illinois; and on to St. Louis and Jefferson City, in Missouri.



The National Road.

This great highway was thus carried through the central portions of four large States.



Starting out over the National Road.

A Conestoga wagon in the Bull's Head yard, Philadelphia.

For many years the National Road played a most important part in the life of the Western people. Traffic on the road was so heavy that it presented a picture of an almost endless procession of moving figures—coaches, wagons, carts, travelers on horseback and on foot, and cattle of every description. Sometimes in a single day as many as sixteen coaches moving westward and as many moving eastward would pass a given point. Hogs and sheep were never out of sight. Families of emigrants in large covered wagons were always moving westward, while drovers with their cattle were always making their way to the markets of the East. So crowded was the highway at times that it resembled a great street in a populous city.

181. The Erie Canal; the Pennsylvania Canal.—But an event of far greater importance than the extension of the National Road was the completing and opening of the Erie Canal in 1825. We learned (p. 208) that the effect of the steamboat navigation in the West was to build up the Gulf trade. The Ohio farmer could ship his grain by water to New Orleans, and receive a price sufficient to pay the freight and still leave a fair profit; but if he should send it by land over the mountains to the Atlantic seaboard, the cost of transportation would be more, perhaps, than the grain was worth. So it was as natural for the

Western trade to find its way to the Gulf ports as it was for water to run downhill. But the business men of New York, Philadelphia, and Baltimore saw that they would suffer great loss if the Western trade were allowed to slip away from them. The National Road, to be sure, would save to the East a part of that trade; but, at the best, goods could not be moved as cheaply on roads as on rivers. The people of the seaboard, therefore, began to look to artificial rivers, that is, *canals*, as a means of securing the Western trade.

Canal-building on a large scale began in 1817, when De Witt Clinton, governor of New York, turned the first spadeful of earth on the Erie Canal, which was to extend from Buffalo to Albany, and to connect Lake Erie with the Hudson River. Clinton had persuaded the legislature of New York to undertake the building of the canal at the expense of the State. He promised that the canal would draw trade from all the Great Lakes and their tributaries and from a large part of the Mississippi valley besides; that this trade would find its way down the Hudson to New York and cause that city to become a great commercial center; that villages, towns, and cities would line the banks of the canal and the shores of the Hudson from Erie to New York; that "the wilderness and the solitary place would become glad, and the desert would rejoice, and blossom as the rose." The work of digging the "great ditch" was carried forward in earnest, and in 1825 the canal was completed and thrown open to the public.

The opening of the canal was celebrated in a manner worthy of so great an event. On the 26th of October a fleet of gaily decorated boats left Buffalo and moved slowly eastward along the canal, "saluted by music, musketry, and the cheers of the crowds along the bank." On the morning of the 4th of November the procession of boats reached the city of New York. A flask of water from Lake Erie was poured into New York Bay by Governor Clinton, and the waters of the Great Lakes were declared to be united forever in marriage with the waters of the ocean.

The canal did all that Clinton promised that it would do and

even more. Before it was built it cost \$100 to carry a ton of goods from Buffalo to New York City; the canal reduced the



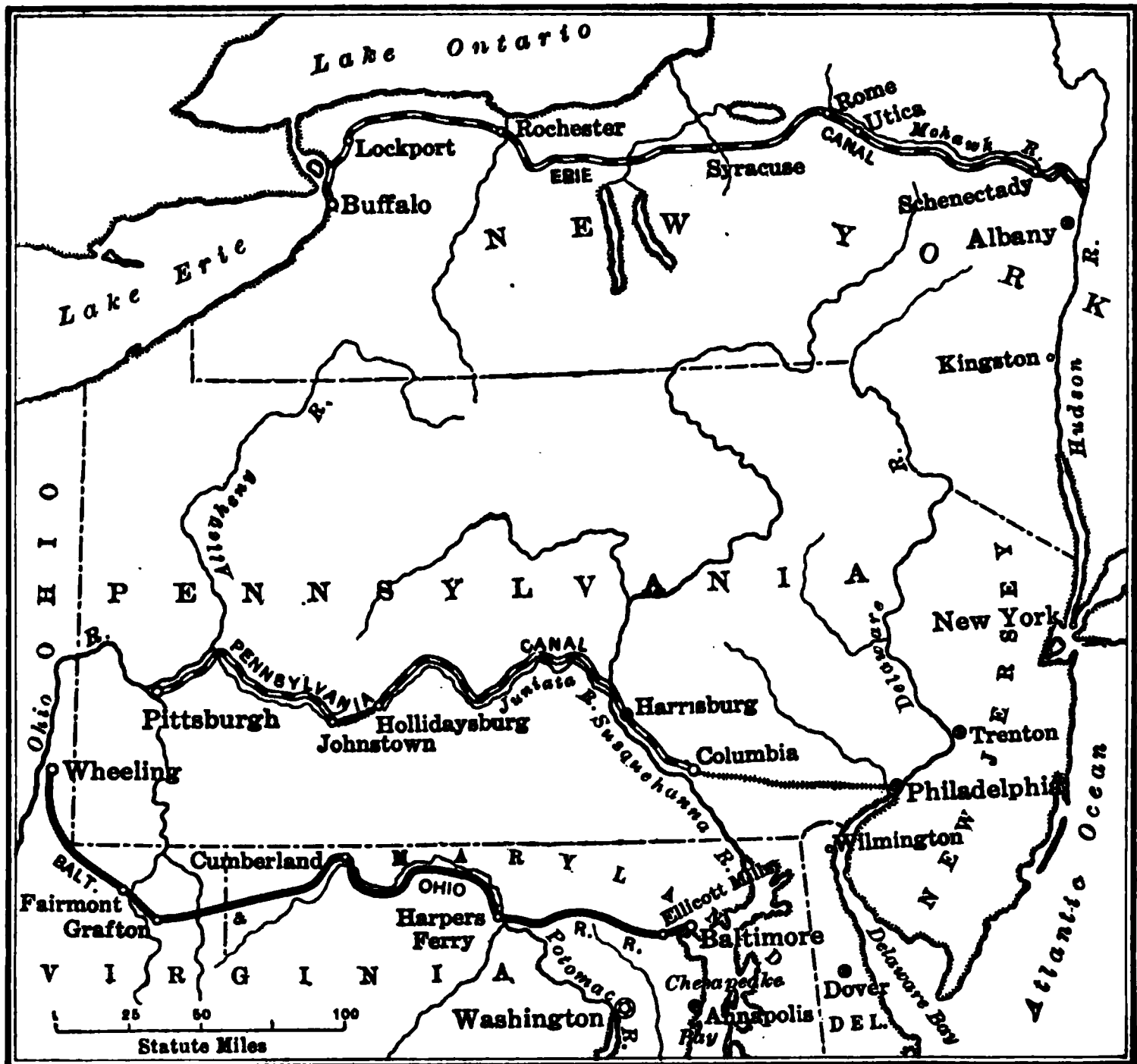
An old-time canal.

cost to \$20. The cheap freight rates caused trade to flow in great volume toward the canal. Within a year after its opening the canal bore on its quiet waters many thousands of boats and rafts laden with lumber, grain, furs, and merchandise of all kinds. Villages and towns sprang up along the line of the canal from one end to the other. Western New York indeed "blossomed as the rose." Utica, Syracuse, Rochester, and Buffalo rapidly developed into flourishing cities. But the greatest thing done by the Erie Canal was to build up the trade of New York City and make it the commercial center of the United States and of the Western Hemisphere.

The Erie Canal was hardly finished before the State of Pennsylvania also began to construct a system of canals from Philadelphia to Pittsburgh. It was necessary to do this if Philadelphia was to hold her Western trade. In 1826 work on the Pennsylvania Canal was begun, and nine years later one could travel by a horse-railway from Philadelphia to the town of Columbia, on the Susquehanna; thence by a canal along the Susquehanna and Juniata to Hollidaysburg; thence over the

mountains by a portage¹ railway to Johnstown; and thence by canal to Pittsburgh.

182. Railroads.—It was necessary also for Baltimore to have

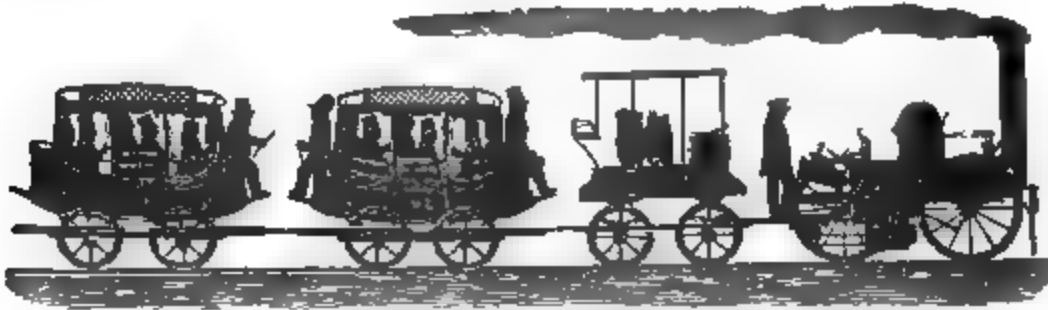


Erie Canal, Pennsylvania Canal, and Baltimore and Ohio Railway.

an easy route to the West, but the men of this city looked to the railroad rather than to the canal as a means of communication. On the Fourth of July, 1828, the venerable Charles Carroll of Carrollton, who fifty-two years before had signed the Declaration of Independence, laid the corner-stone of a railroad that was to connect Baltimore and the Ohio River. At first the cars on the railroad were drawn by horses, but in 1830 a steam-

¹ This portage railway ran over the Alleghany Mountains. It consisted of a series of inclined planes upon which cars were operated by means of stationary engines.

locomotive, invented by Peter Cooper, was put upon the tracks for a trial trip between Baltimore and Ellicott Mills. The distance was thirteen miles. The trip was made in an hour and twelve minutes. On the same day on which the trial trip was made, the locomotive had a race with a horse drawing a car running on a parallel track. The locomotive at first kept the lead, but an accident happened to the machine, and in the end the horse won the race. Still, the trial trip of Cooper's locomotive was in the main successful, and marked the beginning of the great Baltimore and Ohio Railroad, which by 1853 had climbed over the mountains to Wheeling and had saved to Baltimore her Western trade.



An early railway-train.

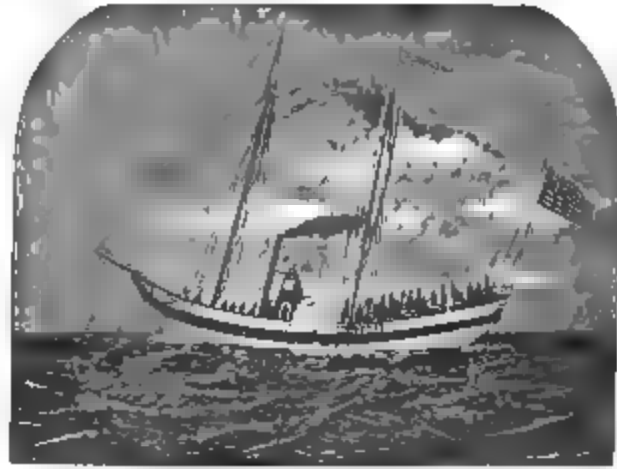
This train made its first trip August 9, 1831, from Albany to Schenectady.

After 1830 the use of steam as a motive power on railroads grew rapidly in favor, and in all parts of the country railroad-building was carried forward with great energy. As our story proceeds we shall learn that in the upbuilding of our country few things have been of greater importance than the smooth iron road and the swift iron horse.

183. Michigan.—Besides building up western New York the Erie Canal was also a powerful factor in the development of the country bordering on the Great Lakes. Its influence spread rapidly across northern Ohio and was soon felt in the Michigan country.

In 1805 the lower peninsula of Michigan was cut off from Indiana Territory and organized as Michigan Territory, with William Hull (p. 199) as the first governor and Detroit as the first capital. But it was a wild and desolate country that Hull went out to govern. The great forests of Michigan were still as

unbroken and untrodden as when, two hundred years before, they were explored by the followers of Champlain. The only inhabitants were the Indians and a few Frenchmen. The only settlements were Detroit, Mackinaw, and Frenchtown. The chief occupation of the region was fur-trading.



Walk-in-the-Water.

Hull proved to be neither a good governor nor a good soldier. In 1813 his place was given to Lewis Cass, a young man who understood pioneer life and who rendered the Territory good service. He made treaties with the Indians and secured the title to vast tracts of Indian land. In his dealings with the Indians he tried to be fair, and he usually won their respect and good will.

In 1818 the steamboat *Walk-in-the-Water* appeared at Detroit, and the next year advanced to Mackinaw, where the savages were made to believe that the strange-looking vessel was drawn by a team of trained sturgeon.



The appearance of the steamboat on the Great Lakes was followed in 1825 by the opening of the Erie Canal. A new era now dawned upon Michigan. Throngs of emigrants from New York and New England soon began

to make their way to the shores of the upper lakes. The population of Michigan Territory jumped from 8000 in 1820 to

32,000 in 1830. By 1837 the population was nearly 100,000 and in that year Michigan was admitted as a State.

184. Development in the South: Cotton-Growing; Slavery.

—The rapid development of the country around the Great Lakes between 1820 and 1840 was matched by a development equally rapid in the States around the Gulf of Mexico. At the time Louisiana, Mississippi, and Alabama were developing their re-



Picking cotton.

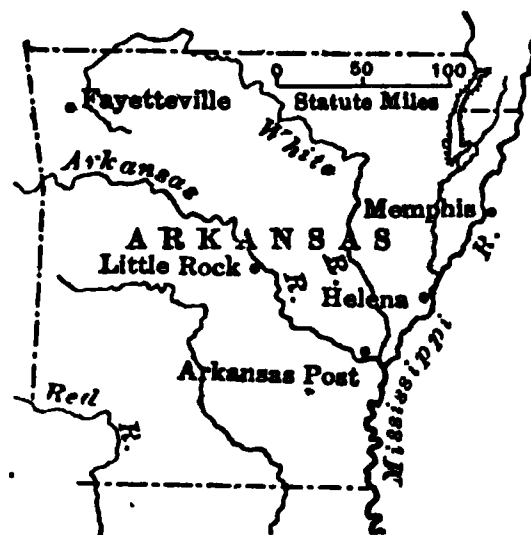
sources, the mills of the North as well as those of Europe were demanding larger and larger quantities of cotton. The lands in the Gulf region were especially desirable for raising cotton. So cotton-growing became the chief occupation in the new States of the far South, and slaves in great numbers were brought down from the older States to work on the plantations. From ten to fifteen thousand were brought down every year from Delaware, Maryland, and Virginia. In ten years Mississippi doubled the number of her slaves, while the number in Alabama was nearly trebled in the same time. The greater the number of slaves, the greater of course was the amount of cotton produced. In 1810 the Gulf region produced 5,000,000 pounds of cotton; in 1820, 60,000,000 pounds; in 1834 its fields were white with 250,000,000 pounds. Thus in the Gulf States slavery by 1840 had become the mainstay of industry, and cotton had become king.

185. Arkansas.—This cotton kingdom of the South was en-

larged in 1836 by the admission of Arkansas. What is now Arkansas formed a part of Louisiana Territory till 1812 and a part of Missouri Territory till 1819, when Arkansas Territory was organized. The population of the Territory in 1820 was less than 15,000. It received, however, an overflow of population from Kentucky, Tennessee, and Missouri, and its growth was rapid. Its soil was adapted to the raising of cotton, and slaves were employed in the cultivation of its fields. In 1835 Arkansas Territory had a population sufficient for statehood, and the next year it was admitted into the Union. Its admission as a slave State was regarded as an offset to the admission of Michigan, which was about to come in as a free State.

186. The Removal of the Indians.—

Between 1820 and 1840 the cotton kingdom was also greatly enlarged and strengthened by the removal of the Indians from the South. When the red men of the South had been subdued by Jackson (p. 217), they had for the most part been allowed to remain on their lands. In 1820 over 50,000 Indians—Creeks, Cherokees, Chickasaws, Choctaws, and others—were living in Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, and Tennessee, and were occupying upward of 30,000,000 acres of land. Much of this was the best land of the South, and the white man of course longed to become its possessor. By a series of treaties with the national government, the Indians consented to surrender their lands east of the Mississippi to the United States, and to receive in return grants of land west of the Mississippi, in the country known as the Indian Territory. In accordance with these treaties the Indians were gradually removed across the Mississippi, and by 1840 but few of them were left in their old homes in the South. The vacant Indian lands were filled up by planters with their slaves and given over to the cultivation of cotton.



Arkansas.

187. Growth in Population between 1820 and 1840; the Frontier Line in 1840.—Although our growth between 1820 and 1840 was not so striking as it was between 1800 and 1820

(p. 219), nevertheless it was very great. During this period our population nearly doubled, increasing from 9,638,453 in 1820 to 17,169,453 in 1840. The development of the West continued at a



Fort Smith, Arkansas, in 1853.

remarkable rate, and by 1840 the Ohio valley was almost an empire in itself. Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois had a combined population of nearly three millions, while Kentucky and Tennessee together could count more than a million and a half. Ohio ranked third in population and was almost as populous as Pennsylvania, while Tennessee ranked fourth and was more populous than Massachusetts.

Western development between 1820 and 1840 consisted for the most part of filling up the unsettled parts of new States. The Frontier Line during these years therefore did not move very rapidly. Nevertheless it moved considerably. In 1820 the line ran pretty close to the Mississippi River (colored map in Chapter XXVIII). By 1840 it had moved west as far as the great northern bend of the Missouri. From the head of Green Bay draw a line through Prairie du Chien, St. Joseph, Kansas City, Fort Smith (Arkansas), and Shreveport (Louisiana), and you will have the Frontier Line of 1840 (colored map in Chapter XXXII).

QUESTIONS ON THE TEXT

1. Give the history of the National Road between 1825 and 1840.
2. Why did the Eastern States need canal communication with the West? Give an account of the building and opening of the Erie Canal. What were some of the effects of this canal? Why was the Pennsylvania Canal built? What was the route of this canal?
3. What was the early history of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad?
4. What was the early history of Michigan? What two things hastened the growth of Michigan? Give an account of the admission of Michigan as a State.
5. Give an account of the development of the far South between 1820 and 1840.
6. When was Arkansas admitted as a State?
7. Give an account of the removal of the Indians from the South.
8. What was the growth in population between 1820 and 1840? Describe the Frontier Line in 1840.

REVIEW AND READING REFERENCES

1. Dates: 1689 (2), 1754, 1763, 1787 (2), 1803, 1821, 1832.
2. Places: San Salvador, Providence, Charleston (2), Fort Duquesne, Saratoga.
3. Persons: De Soto, Magellan, Virginia Dare, Washington, Franklin, Braddock, Wolfe, Burr, Monroe, J. Q. Adams, Calhoun, Clay, Webster.
4. Tell what you can about: the Albany Congress; the French and Indian War; the treaty of 1763; the Articles of Confederation; the Convention of 1787; the Louisiana Purchase; the Lewis and Clark expedition; the early history of Louisiana; the tariff of abominations; the Missouri Compromise; the Monroe Doctrine; the spoils system; nullification.
5. Topics: De Witt Clinton: 8, 177-183. The Erie Canal: 23, 40-52. The Baltimore and Ohio Railroad: 23, 98-110. Steamboats, canals, and railroads: 17, 207-222. Buffalo: 32, 367-392. Pittsburgh, 32, 393-426. Beginnings of American settlement in Michigan: 27, 189-204. Michigan becomes a State: 27, 205-231.

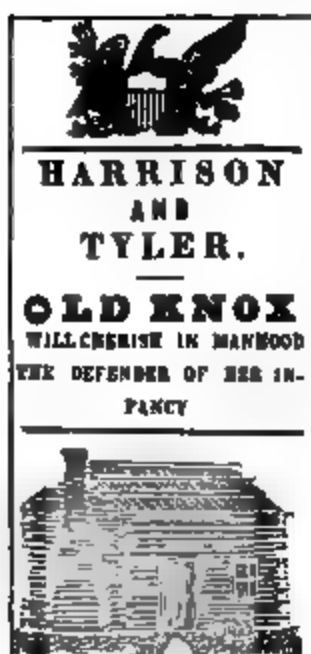
XXXI

HARRISON AND TYLER; POLK; THE GREAT WESTWARD EXTENSION

Across the Stony Mountains, o'er the desert's drouth and sand,
The circles of our empire touch the western ocean's strand.

The mighty West shall bless the East, and sea shall answer sea,
And mountain unto mountain call, Praise God, for we are free.

John Greenleaf Whittier



Harrison and Tyler
campaign badge.

Introduction.—By 1840 much of the best land east of the Mississippi had been taken and pioneers had begun to push out into the free unoccupied lands of the far Northwest and of the far Southwest. This pressure of population westward and the hunger for new land resulted, between 1840 and 1850, in an enormous westward extension of our territory, and the chief aim of this chapter will be to give an account of that extension.

THE ADMINISTRATION OF WILLIAM HENRY HARRISON AND JOHN TYLER (1841-45)

188. The Election of 1840.—In 1840 the Democrats nominated Van Buren for a second term. The Whig party—as the party opposed to the Democrats was now called—nominated William Henry Harrison, the Tippecanoe victor, for President, and John Tyler of Virginia for Vice-President. Clay desired the nomination for the Presidency and was bitterly disappointed when he failed to receive it.

The campaign of 1840 was noisy and exciting. Harrison was a plain man, living in a plain way on a farm in Ohio, and an Eastern newspaper suggested that it would be better for the

country if he would remain there, declaring with a sneer that the candidate would be more at home "in a log cabin, drinking cider and skinning coons, than living in the White House as President." As vast numbers of the voters were themselves living in log cabins, the Whigs could make good use of this sneer, and they did so. "Log Cabin and Hard Cider" was taken up as the campaign cry. Log cabins were set on wheels and drawn in processions. Men wore log-cabin buttons, smoked log-cabin cigars, and sang log-cabin songs. The log-cabin candidate became a popular hero, and everywhere there was shouting for "Tippecanoe and Tyler too." The political meetings of the Whigs were sometimes so large that the people could only be measured by the acre. At Dayton, Ohio, there was a monster meeting covering ten acres of ground and numbering 100,000 people. As a result of this enthusiasm Harrison was elected by a large majority.



William Henry Harrison.

Born in Virginia, in 1773; delegate to Congress, governor of Indiana Territory; member of Congress and of the Senate, minister to Colombia; ninth President; died at Washington, D. C., April 4, 1841.

189. The Death of Harrison; John Tyler Becomes President.

—Harrison was inaugurated March 4, 1841, but precisely one month after his inauguration he died. John Tyler, the Vice-President, now became President. Tyler had been elected by the Whigs, but he was a Democrat at heart. He had left the Democrats chiefly because he hated Jackson. He loved Clay and wanted to see him elected President, and when Harrison was nominated instead of Clay, Tyler is said to have burst into tears.

When Tyler became President¹ he turned his back upon the

¹ President Tyler early in his administration was called upon to send troops to Rhode Island to suppress an uprising known as Dorr's Rebellion. At the time, under the existing constitution of Rhode Island, a man could not vote unless he owned real estate worth at least \$134 or paid a yearly rent of at least \$7. Many people in the State regarded this as a

Whigs and acted in a way to suit the Democrats. Congress, under the leadership of Clay, passed a bill to reestablish the



John Tyler.

Born in Virginia, in 1790; governor of Virginia, 1825-27; member of the Senate, 1827-36; elected Vice-President, 1840; succeeded as tenth President upon the death of Harrison; member of Confederate provisional congress; died in 1862.

Bank of the United States, but Tyler was strongly opposed to such a bank and vetoed the bill. Congress passed a second bank bill similar to the first, and again Tyler used the veto. Then all the members of Tyler's cabinet except Webster¹ resigned. Tyler was now alone. He had lost the powerful support of Clay; Congress was against him; and he had no party on his side, for the Whigs felt that he had basely deserted them, and the Democrats did not trust him.

190. The Annexation of Texas.—

Although Tyler was without a party, he was nevertheless a very active President. It was he who brought about the annexation of Texas. The Texas question had been before the minds of the people for a long time. As early as 1800 Philip Nolan and a band of adventurers left Natchez and made their way westward through the wilderness to Texas. Here they employed their time in capturing wild

hardship, and in 1841 those who were dissatisfied with the old order of things took matters into their own hands and adopted a new constitution. They elected Thomas W. Dorr as governor, but the governor under the old constitution refused to recognize the new governor. Dorr attempted (in 1842) to take possession of the State government by force, but before there was any bloodshed Dorr's followers deserted him, and he was arrested and imprisoned. So President Tyler was not compelled to send troops to Rhode Island. Dorr was soon pardoned, and in 1843 the people of Rhode Island adopted a new constitution in an orderly manner.

¹ Webster, who was Secretary of State, remained in the cabinet in order to settle with England the question of the true boundary line between Maine and Canada. The boundary line was fixed in 1842 by an agreement known as the Webster-Ashburton treaty.

ponies until they themselves were captured by Spanish officials, for Texas at that time belonged to Spain. In 1820 Moses Austin began the founding of a colony of Americans in Texas, but died before his work was completed. The scheme begun by Moses Austin was carried forward by his son Stephen, who secured an enormous tract of land between Nacogdoches and San Antonio, and established a colony of three hundred families. Other colonists followed Austin, and before seven years had passed there were 12,000 Americans in Texas.

In 1836 Texas, then one of the States of Mexico,¹ declared its independence of the mother country, and under the leadership of Sam Houston, an American, defeated the Mexican army at San Jacinto (map, p. 257). The

Texans had no sooner gained their independence than they applied for admission into the Union. Their desire to be a part of the United States was natural enough, for most of them were Americans. Of the sixty signers of the Texas declaration of independence fifty-three were citizens of the United States.

The question of admitting Texas had come up before Jackson, but he would have nothing to do with it. The constitution of Texas allowed slavery, and Jackson knew he would offend



Stephen Austin, "The Father of Texas."

From a picture in the Texas State Capitol.

¹ Mexico in 1821 threw off the yoke of Spain and became an independent nation. Texas, before 1836, was one of the States of Mexico, just as Pennsylvania is one of the States of the United States.

the North if he favored the admission of Texas, and would offend the South if he opposed its admission. But Tyler was strongly in favor of admitting Texas. He arranged for a treaty of annexation, but the Senate rejected the treaty.

The Texas question, however, could not be permanently set aside. In 1844 the Democrats nominated James K. Polk of Tennessee for President, and declared squarely for the annexation of Texas and for the occupation of Oregon. The Whigs nominated Clay and kept silent on the Texas question. The Democratic cry in the campaign was, "The Northwest and the Southwest," which meant that, if Polk won, both the Oregon country and Texas would be added to the Union. Polk was elected, and Tyler, feeling sure that the people of the country were in favor of annexing Texas, urged Congress to annex it at once. Congress took the matter up, and three days before Tyler went out of office a joint resolution annexing Texas to the United States passed (March 1, 1845) in both houses. The terms of the resolution were accepted by the Texans with an outburst of joy, and a State seven times as large as England was added to our Union. By the annexation of Texas the area of the cotton kingdom was greatly enlarged and the institution of slavery was greatly strengthened.¹

THE ADMINISTRATION OF JAMES K. POLK (1845-49)

191. The Oregon Country.—Polk had promised that the Oregon country as well as Texas should be brought into the Union. As soon as he took his seat, therefore, he began to push the claims of the United States to the vast region lying between the crest of the Rocky Mountains and the Pacific and extending from the forty-second parallel of north latitude to the parallel of 54° 40' north (map, p. 256). Polk could give several reasons why the United States should take possession of the Oregon country. In the first place, he could claim it through the right of discovery, for in 1792 Captain Robert Gray of Boston had

¹ In the same year in which Texas was annexed slavery was also strengthened by the admission of Florida as a slave State.

entered the mouth of the Columbia River in a trading-vessel. Moreover, Lewis and Clark had explored the country in 1805. But his strongest claim rested on the fact that Americans in large numbers had crossed over the Rockies and had made actual settlements in the Oregon country.

The early settlement of Oregon by Americans was due largely to a missionary movement. About 1832 four Indians traveled from the upper Columbia to St. Louis to learn from the white man what they could about the Christian religion and to get a copy of the white man's "book of heaven," the Bible. In response to this appeal Jason Lee, a Methodist preacher, went out in 1834 by the Oregon trail (p. 271) and founded a mission on the Willamette River. Two years later Presbyterians under the leadership of Dr. Marcus Whitman founded a mission at Walla Walla. These missionaries preached to the Indians, helped them to build houses, and showed them how to till their fields and grind their wheat and corn.

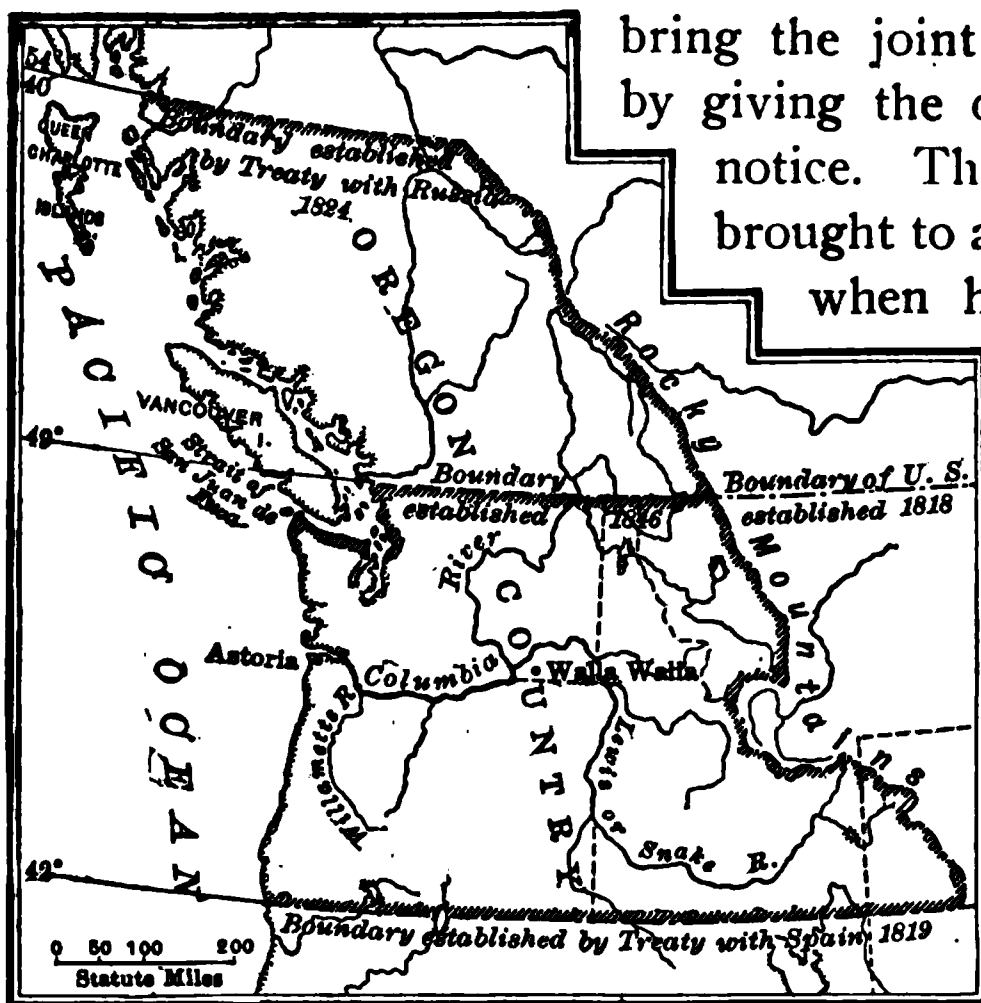
The praises of the lovely and fertile valley of the Willamette reached the East and soon caused the tide of emigration to flow toward Oregon. In one year (1843) about six thousand persons took the long journey over the plains and mountains. At this time there were enough settlers in the Willamette valley to require a government. So the Oregon settlers, like the pioneers of Tennessee, framed a government for themselves. They met in a barn in Champoege and drew up for their little community a plan of government which satisfied their needs for several years.

England as well as the United States claimed Oregon, and in 1845 both countries by a friendly arrangement were holding it in joint possession, the agreement being that either country could



James K. Polk.

Born in North Carolina, in 1795; studied law; member of Congress; governor of Tennessee, 1839-41; eleventh President, 1845-49; died in Tennessee, in 1849.



The Oregon country.

bring the joint occupation to an end by giving the other country a year's notice. The joint occupation was brought to an end by Polk in 1846, when he claimed Oregon as

belonging wholly to the United States. England yielded to the claim and withdrew, leaving the United States in possession.¹ The Oregon country thus acquired was about as large as Texas. It included what are now the States of

Oregon, Washington, Idaho, and parts of Wyoming and Montana—in all about 280,000 square miles.

192. The War with Mexico; California; New Mexico.—But Polk's heart was set upon acquiring California as well as Oregon. California at this time really belonged to Mexico, but the Mexican government was so weak that it could neither control nor defend the distant province. This part of the Pacific coast was, therefore, exposed to the attack of foreign powers, and Polk feared that if California was not seized by the Americans it would be seized by England or by France.

The event that led directly to the conquest of California was the Mexican War. This was brought on by a dispute as to the rightful boundaries of Texas. Mexico claimed the land between the Nueces River and the Rio Grande. Texas also claimed this land, and when it became one of the States of our Union its claims were of course defended by the government of the United States. Polk did not wish to wage war against Mexico if he could help it, so he tried to arrange for a treaty that would make

¹ In the treaty, however, which gave us Oregon, England held on to the part of the country which lies north of the forty-ninth parallel.



Map of the war with Mexico.

war unnecessary. But Mexico preferred to fight. Mexican troops were sent into the disputed territory between the Rio Grande and the Nueces, where American troops had already been stationed. In April, 1846, the two armies met and fighting began.

Polk desired a short war and one in which there would be little shedding of blood. He went into the conflict with the sword in one hand and the olive-branch of peace in the other. General Winfield Scott (p. 201) was at the time the commanding general of the army, and Zachary Taylor—old “Rough and Ready” as he was called—was at first given command in Mex-

ico. In September, 1846, Taylor moved an army of 7000 men against Monterey, which was defended by a garrison of 10,000 soldiers. After three days of sharp fighting, Monterey surrendered.

General Scott himself now appeared upon the scene of war with plans for the capture of Vera Cruz and the city of Mexico, and in order to strengthen himself for the expedition he with-



Vera Cruz, Mexico

drew from Taylor a large body of experienced officers and troops. In February, 1847, Taylor, with a greatly reduced army, was compelled to meet the Mexican general Santa Anna at Buena Vista, where was fought the greatest battle of the war. The Mexicans greatly outnumbered the Americans, but through the excellent generalship of Taylor the Americans won the victory.

On March 9, 1847, General Scott began to land his army of 12,000 men at Vera Cruz, and on March 29 the city had surrendered. Scott now pushed on to the city of Mexico. He defeated the Mexicans at the pass of Cerro Gordo, and advanced to Puebla, where, in accordance with the policy of Polk, he offered to the Mexicans the "olive-branch of peace." The Mexicans refused the offer of peace and rallied their forces for the further defense of their country. But it was of no use. Scott marched on to victory after victory. On September 8 he took Molino del Rey; on September 13 he carried by storm Capul-

tepec, a strong fortress that overlooked the city of Mexico; and on September 14 he entered the capital with his army and raised the American flag.

193. The Capture of New Mexico and California; the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo.—With the capture of the city of Mexico the Mexican War practically was brought to a close. California, the great prize of the war, had been taken almost before the war had actually begun. As early as June, 1846, Colonel Stephen Kearney left Fort Leavenworth and marched to Santa Fé. After capturing Santa Fé and taking possession

of all New Mexico, he marched on to California. Upon arriving there, however, he found that American settlers had already declared California to be an independent republic¹ and that the country had already been won for the Americans by Lieutenant John C. Frémont, who was in command of a small body of soldiers, and by Commodore Stockton, who was hovering off the Pacific coast with a fleet. The conquest had been made without a struggle. "We simply marched," said one of Frémont's soldiers, "all over California from Sonoma to San Diego, and raised the American flag without opposition or protest. We tried to find an enemy, but we could not."

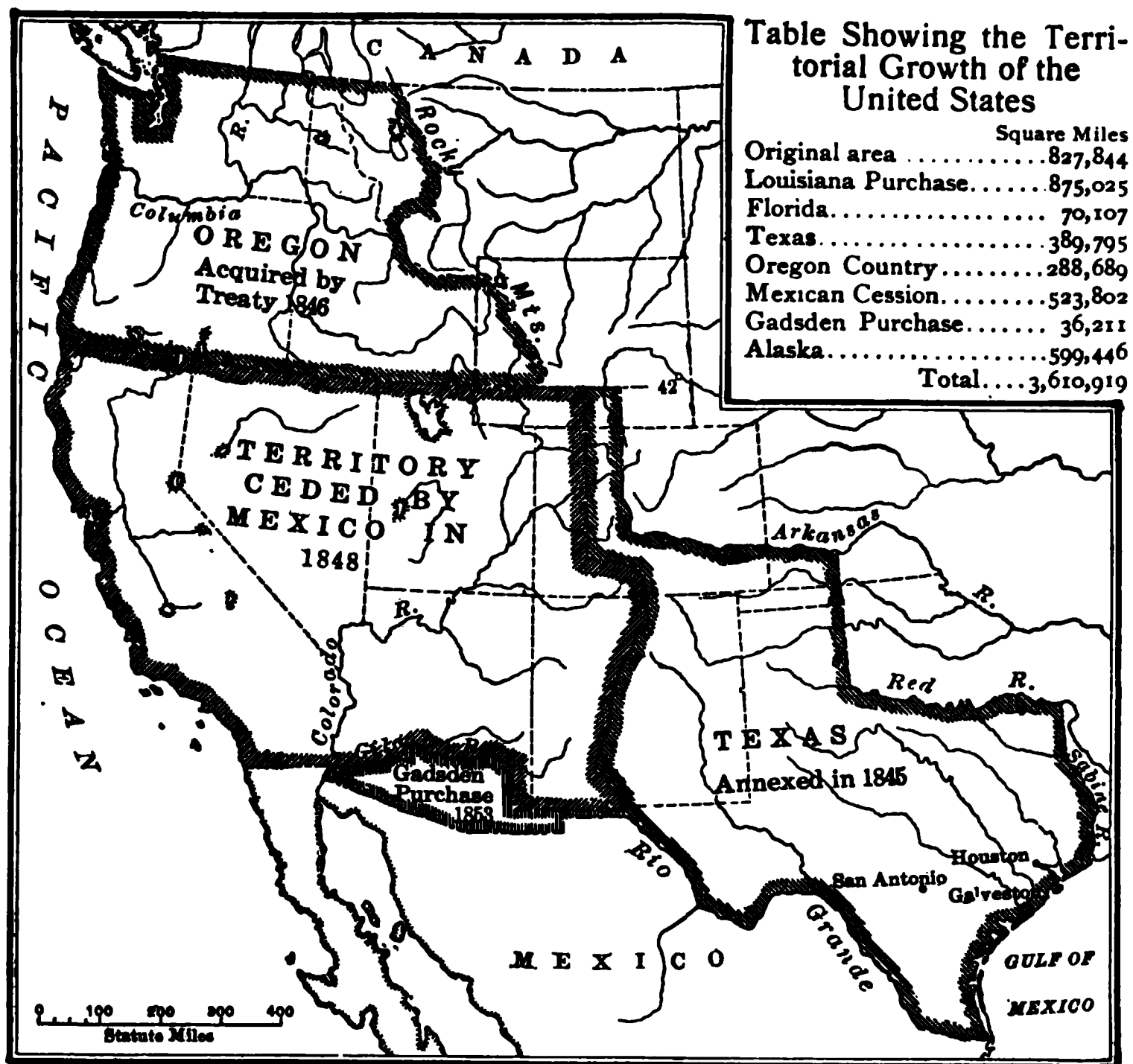
A treaty of peace between the United States and Mexico was arranged in February, 1848, at Guadalupe Hidalgo, a village near the city of Mexico. By the terms of the treaty, the disputed Texas Territory, New Mexico, and California were ceded to the United States, and in return our government gave Mexico \$15,000,000, precisely the sum paid for Louisiana. Thus during the administrations of Tyler and Polk we extended our territory



Winfield Scott.

Born in Virginia, in 1786; served in the War of 1812; major-general and commander-in-chief of the army, 1841; retired from active service, 1861; died in 1866.

¹ The settlers raised a flag upon which was a picture of a grizzly bear, and their new republic was known as the Bear State Republic.



The westward extension.

to the Pacific Ocean and acquired possession of what is now Texas, Oregon, Washington, Idaho, Utah, California, Nevada, New Mexico, Arizona, and parts of Wyoming, Montana, and Oklahoma.¹

QUESTIONS ON THE TEXT

1. What led to the great westward extension of our territory between 1840 and 1850?
2. Give an account of the presidential campaign of 1840.

¹ In 1853 James Gadsden, acting as an agent for the United States, purchased from Mexico, for the sum of \$10,000,000, a tract of land 36,000 square miles in area. This tract is now included in the southern part of Arizona and New Mexico, and is known as the *Gadsden Purchase*.

3. By what political party was Tyler elected? In what way did he forsake the principles of his party? Give an account of Dorr's Rebellion.

4. Give an account of the early history of Texas and of the annexation of Texas.

5. What claims did the United States have upon the Oregon country? Give an account of the early settlement of Oregon. Under what circumstances did we acquire the Oregon country?

6. What was the cause of the Mexican War? Give an account of the military operations of Taylor; of Scott. In what way did we gain possession of New Mexico and California?

7. What were the terms of the treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo?

REVIEW AND READING REFERENCES

1. Dates: 1664, 1682, 1789, 1812, 1821, 1825, 1832.

2. Places: Genoa, New Amsterdam, Quebec, Watauga, New Orleans.

3. Persons: Penn, Jefferson, Hamilton, John Adams, Madison, Jackson, Monroe, J. Q. Adams, Calhoun, Clay, Webster, De Witt Clinton, Fulton.

4. Tell what you can about: the Puritans; the first written constitution; King Philip's War; the Stamp Act; the beginnings of political parties; Jay's treaty; the battle of New Orleans; the treaty of Ghent; the tariff of 1816; the Missouri Compromise; the Monroe Doctrine; the spoils system; nullification; the first steamboat; the Erie Canal.

5. Topics: The campaign of 1840: 15 (Vol. I), 223-240. General Sam Houston: 24, 67-78; 6, 173-186. The rupture with Mexico: 11, 183-196. General Taylor: 24, 189-204; also 22, 217-225. General Scott: 24, 207-225; also 11, 208-229. The Bivouac of the Dead: 14, 368. Pioneers of the pioneers: 29, 137-158. The first American government on the Pacific: 29, 196-212.



A Mexican.

XXXII

DEVELOPMENT BETWEEN 1840 AND 1850

I loved my village, my corn-fields, and my people. I fought for them. They are now yours. I have looked upon the Mississippi River since I was a child. I love the great river. I have always dwelt upon its banks. I look upon it now and am sad. I shake hands with you. We are now friends — *Black Hawk* to his white captors.



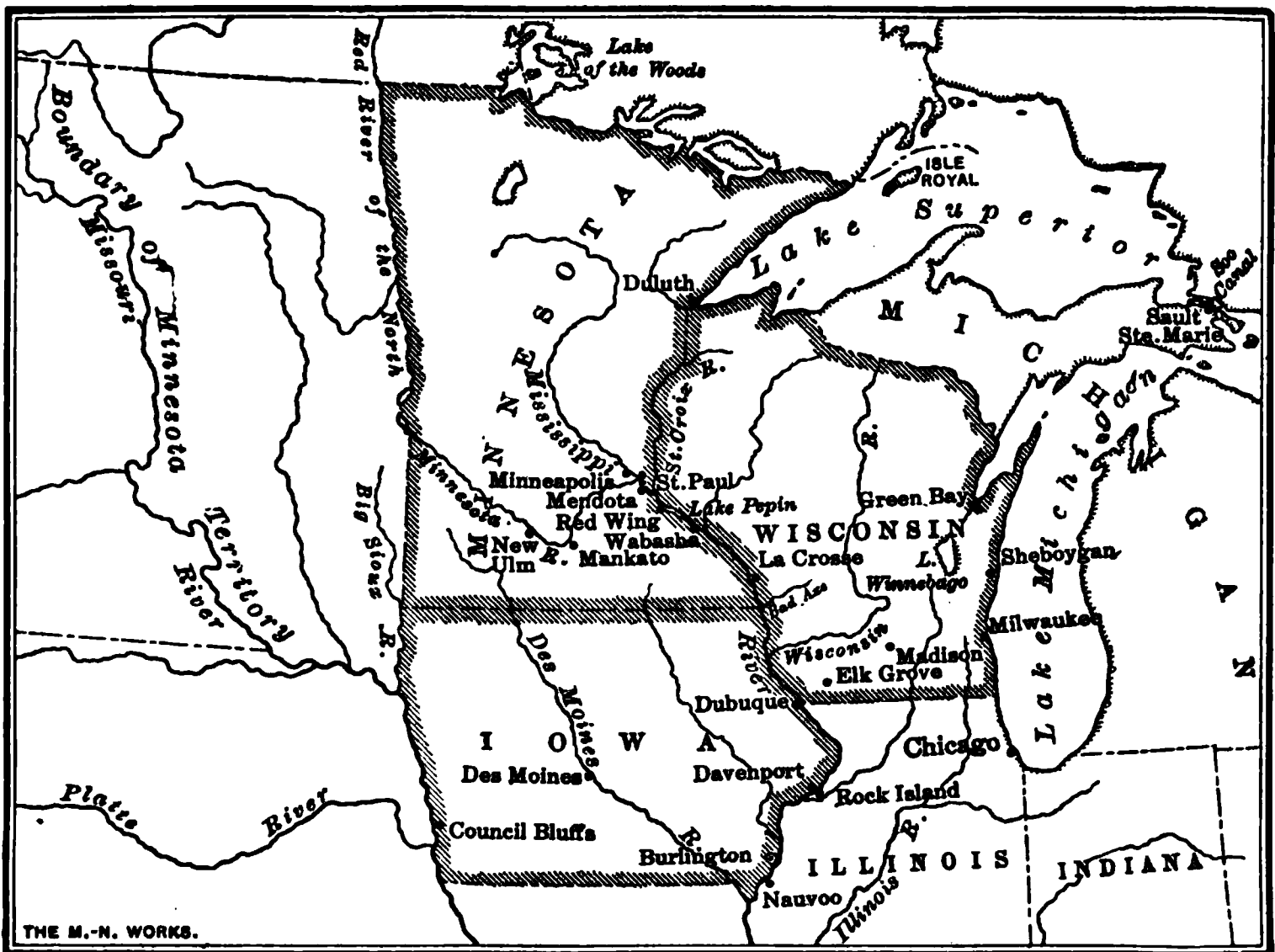
Savannah, first steamship to cross the Atlantic.

Introduction.—While, during the administration of Tyler and Polk, the United States was extending its boundaries to the Pacific, pioneers were rapidly developing new communities in the West and building up new States. In this chapter the chief aim will be to give an account of

Western development between 1840 and 1850.

194. Cheap Lands and Immigration.—In 1841 Congress passed the Preemption Law. This law reduced the price of public lands from \$2 an acre (p. 207) to \$1.25 an acre, and provided that after the settler had resided on his land for six months and had made certain improvements upon it he could secure a full title to it. The Preemption Law thus encouraged Western development by offering settlers land at an extremely low price and on very favorable terms.

The growth of the West was also greatly assisted by a tide of immigration that poured into the United States between 1840 and 1850. By 1840 steamships were making regular trips across the Atlantic, and foreigners could come to our shores in comfort and at little expense. Thousands came from Ireland because of a terrible famine (in 1846) due to the failure of the potato crop. Thousands of Germans came because they were discontented



Along the Upper Mississippi and around the Great Lakes.

with political affairs at home. Before 1840 immigrants came to America by the tens of thousands; after 1840 they came by the hundreds of thousands. Between 1840 and 1850 nearly 2,000,000 foreigners came to the United States, and vast throngs of them went directly to the Western country.

195. Along the Upper Mississippi and around the Great Lakes: Iowa; Wisconsin; Minnesota.—In no part of the West did the upbuilding of new communities between 1840 and 1850 proceed faster than along the banks of the Upper Mississippi and along the shores of the Great Lakes. In this region, within the space of a few years, there emerged from a howling wilderness three great States—Iowa, Wisconsin, and Minnesota.

Iowa.—No region could have had greater charms for the pioneers than the Iowa country. "Iowa, a beautiful State to-day, was still more beautiful when the settlers first saw it. The prairies were rounded and swelling, fringed by heavy timber. In the spring the grass was a tender green and covered with flowers. The groves were rich in blossoming rosewood, dog-

wood, crab-apple, wild cherry, and wild plum. The wild rose was abundant. In the summer the prairies were like a sea, the tall coarse grass, dried to a golden hue, waving in the wind."¹

Yet the settlement of the beautiful Iowa country did not begin until after it had been in our possession for many years. This was because it was occupied by savage tribes. But piece by piece the red man lost his lands. In 1832 the government bought from the Sacs and Foxes about 6,000,000 acres lying west of the Mississippi and north of the Des Moines. In this tract—known as the Black Hawk Purchase—there were valuable lead-mines, which had great attractions for the people of Illinois and Mis-

souri. With the Indians out of the way, there was a rush for these mines, and the settlement of the Iowa country began in earnest. Dubuque was founded in 1833; Burlington in 1834; Davenport in 1836.

But all this time Iowa was without a

government; for when Congress, in 1821, set Missouri off as a State, it failed to provide a government for the region at the north. In 1834 a miner at Dubuque shot another miner and killed him, but there was no regular way of bringing the murderer to justice. Still, the offender was made to suffer for his crime. He was brought before a jury which he himself was allowed to select. The jury sat on a log and tried the case. The prisoner was found guilty and was hung.

This case of backwoods justice having been brought to the notice of the authorities at Washington, Congress in 1834 attached the territory north of Missouri and between the Mississippi and Missouri rivers to the Territory of Michigan. Iowa remained a part of Michigan Territory until 1836, when it

¹ Sabin, "The Making of Iowa," p. 167.



Kansas City in 1840.

passed under the control of Wisconsin Territory. Two years later, however, it was given a territorial government of its own, with a capital at Burlington.¹

By 1843 Iowa was almost free of Indians, and settlers were pouring into the unoccupied lands. By 1846 the lower part of Iowa Territory contained a number of people sufficient for statehood, and accordingly Iowa in that year was set off as a State and admitted. The rush to Iowa was now greater than ever.

Emigrants came from the South, from the East, and from Europe. Ferries were busy day and night carrying the pioneers across the Mississippi, and steamboats on the Ohio, the Mississippi, and the Missouri were packed with passengers. In ten years—between 1840 and 1850—the population of Iowa leaped from 40,000 to 200,000.



Black Hawk.

treaties by which the whites were gaining possession of the Indian lands, and in 1831 refused to move from lands which the

¹ In 1857 Des Moines was made the capital of Iowa.



The first Capitol of Wisconsin.

Wisconsin.—Rapid as was the growth of Iowa, the growth of her eastern neighbor was even more rapid. Wisconsin for nearly fifty years was simply a part of other Territories, but in 1836 she became a Territory in her own name and right. Several years before she became a Territory there was waged on her soil the last battle of what was known as the Black Hawk War. Black Hawk, a leader of the Sacs and Foxes and a fine specimen of Indian manhood, was opposed to the

whites had purchased. Troops were sent against the troublesome chief, and in the summer of 1832 his band of warriors was completely defeated at the battle of Bad Ax, in Wisconsin. The brave leader himself was captured and held as a prisoner.

After the defeat of Black Hawk the Indians were no longer feared, and emigrants moved into Wisconsin in great streams. In the southwestern part there were rich lead-mines, and to these mines settlers made their way both by overland route and by the Ohio and Mississippi. Thousands came by way of the Great Lakes on steamers, landing at Green Bay or at Milwaukee. Sometimes the steamers were so crowded that passengers were obliged to sleep on mattresses spread on the decks and dining-room floors. By 1847 more than 200,000 whites had settled in the Territory, and the next year Wisconsin was given its present boundaries and admitted into the Union.

Minnesota.—When Wisconsin was set off as a State the region at the west was left without a government of any kind and for a time was known as "No Man's Land." But in 1849 Minne-



St. Paul in 1853.

From a drawing by a German traveler.

sota Territory was organized and its seat of government was located at St. Paul. No Territory ever began its existence with

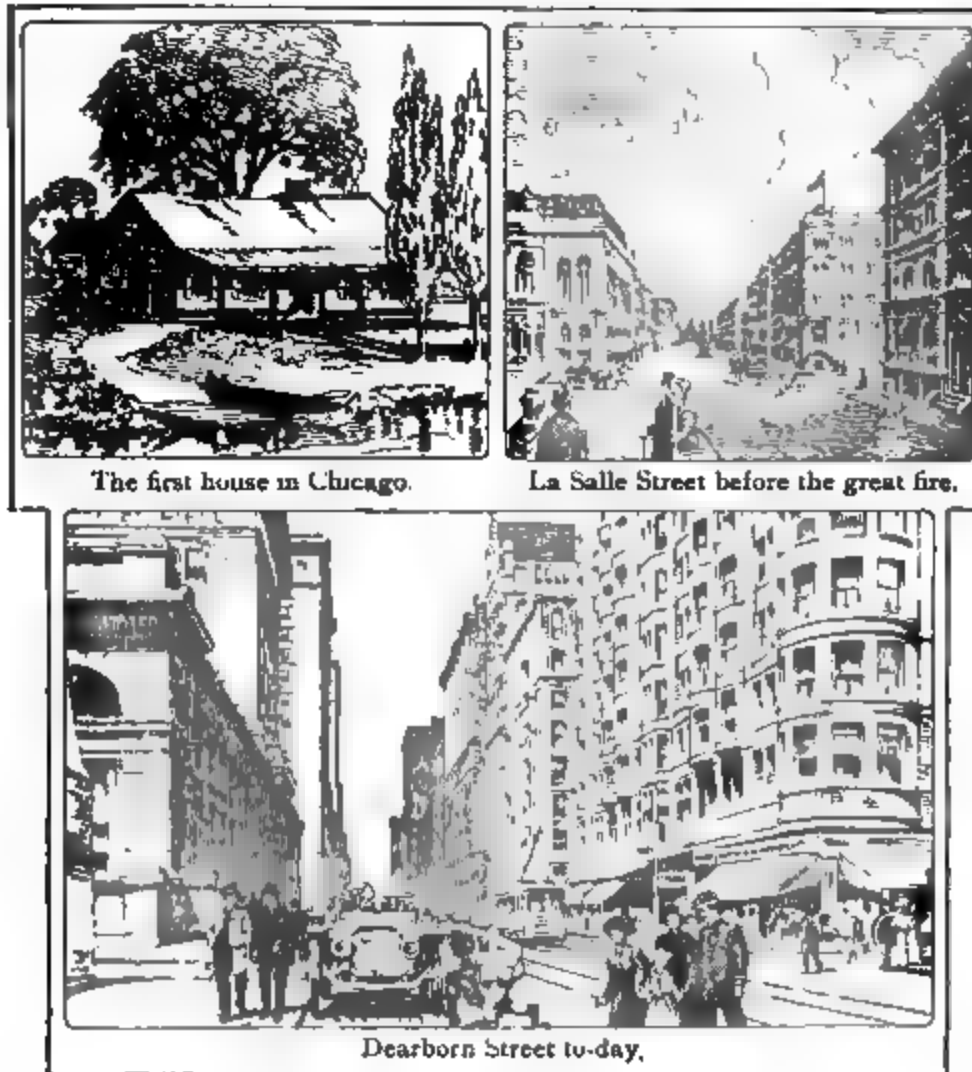
fewer white inhabitants than did Minnesota Territory. Its population was less than 5000. "There was a trading-post at Wabasha, a storehouse at the fort of Lake Pepin, a mission house at Red Wing and at Kaposia, and a trading-post at Mendota, and that was all."¹ Yet few Territories ever grew faster than Minnesota. In 1853 the lands of the Sioux Indians, over 28,000,000 acres, were thrown open to the whites. The next year Chicago and Rock Island, on the Mississippi, were joined by a railroad, and in 1856 the Sault Ste. Marie Canal was opened. Minnesota was now easy to reach, and emigrants swarmed over her vacant lands like bees. In 1857 the population of the Territory was found to be more than thirty times as great as it was in 1849. As swift as was the development of Iowa and Wisconsin, their progress seemed like the movement of a snail when compared with the progress of Minnesota. In 1857 Minnesota Territory applied for admission as a State, and the next year it joined the Union.



The first frame house in Duluth.

The pioneer history of the Upper Lake and Upper Mississippi States was of short duration. Within the space of a lifetime the whole face of nature was changed. With the banishment of the Indians and the destruction of the forests, the fur industry declined, and farming, mining, and lumbering became the chief occupations. The railroad came, and in its path came civilization—churches, schools, villages, cities. Minneapolis, St. Paul, Duluth, Milwaukee, grew as the country around them grew, and rapidly became busy and flourishing centers of commerce and industry. How important this development of the Upper Mississippi and Upper Lake States has been in our history may be seen in the results that are before us to-day. Iowa in 1900 led all the States in the products of the farm; Wisconsin holds second rank in the products of the forest; Minnesota produces

¹ Niles, "History and Government of Minnesota," p. 51.



The first house in Chicago.

La Salle Street before the great fire.

Dearborn Street to-day.

Three views of Chicago.

more iron ore than all the other States put together, and is the greatest wheat-growing State in the Union.

196. Chicago.—The development of the Upper Mississippi and the Upper Lake region led to the upbuilding of Chicago. For many years the growth of Chicago was slow. As late as 1838 wolves could be heard at night howling in the woods around the town. But Chicago was fitted by nature to become the metropolis of the growing West. Railroads running to Eastern cities from Wisconsin and Minnesota would pass by the head of Lake Michigan, and grain from the fields of Iowa, northern Illinois, and northern Indiana would naturally be taken to the head of this lake for shipment. About 1840 Chicago began to ship wheat in large quantities to the East, and then its wonderful growth began. In 1840 its population was less than

5000; in 1850 it was a city of nearly 30,000. By 1854 it was connected by railroads with the cities of the Atlantic and with points on the Mississippi River. Chicago now grew more rapidly than ever, and it was not many years before it held first place among the cities west of the Alleghanies.

197. California before the Conquest.—The story of the Westward Movement during the forties now takes us from the banks of the Mississippi to the far-off land of California. When California came into our possession in 1847 it was inhabited chiefly by Spaniards and Indians. For more than a hundred years Spanish priests of the Jesuit and Franciscan orders had been establishing missions in California, and by the time the Americans appeared upon the scene there were missions at San Diego, San Luis Rey, Los Angeles, Santa Barbara, Monterey, San José, and San Francisco. The purpose of the mission was to teach the Indians Christianity and to train them in the arts of civilized life. The mission was thus both a religious and an industrial community. "At sunrise the bell sounded for the Angelus, and the Indians assembled in the chapel, where they attended morning prayers and mass and received short religious instruction. Then came breakfast, after which they returned to their work. At 11 A.M. they



In the garden of the Santa Barbara Mission, California.

ate dinner, and after that they rested until 2 P.M. Work was then resumed and continued until an hour before sunset, when the bell again tolled the Angelus. After prayers and the rosary the Indians supped, and then were free to take part in a dance or some such innocent amusement." The chief occupations at the mission were farming, cattle-raising, and the growing of fruits—apples, pears, peaches, apricots, plums, oranges, and

pomegranates. In the fields the priests set an example of industry and worked side by side with the Indians. In the days

~~Monday~~ ^{Thursday} ~~24~~ ²⁴ ~~Monday~~ ^{Thursday}
some kind of metal was

¹⁷⁷
~~was~~ found in the tail race that
that looks like gold first discovered
by James W. Wicks, of Bobo, Ill.
Sunday 30th Clear & has been
all the last week our metal
has been tried and proves to
be gold it is thought to be
rich we have picked up more than
a hundred dollars worth last
week

February 1848
Sun 6th the weather has been clear

The first record of the discovery of gold in California. An entry in the diary of one of the laborers. treaty that gave California to the

United States (p. 259) a man named Marshall found at Calusa, a settlement in the Sacramento valley, a piece of metal which proved to be gold, and in a few weeks it was discovered that gold was abundant throughout the whole valley. The news of Marshall's discovery spread like a forest fire. By September the tidings reached the Atlantic seaboard, and by the beginning of 1849 it was known all over the civilized world that in California there were fields of gold that could be worked by anybody who could buy a miner's outfit—a pick, a shovel, and a tin pan. So there was a wild dash for the gold-fields. Men of all ages and of all classes—clergymen, professors, doctors, lawyers, farmers, traders, thieves, gamblers—started for the far-off coast of the Pacific. They traveled on foot, on horseback, in wagons, in carts, by rail, by boat.

199. Routes to California.—The gold-hunters from the seaboard States could reach California either by water or by an

before the American conquest these missions were the principal centers of civilized life.

198. The Discovery of Gold in California.—But the peaceful religious life of the Spanish mission was soon to be disturbed and destroyed by the fierce onset of American progress. Nine days before the signing of the



The Santa Fé and Oregon trails to the Pacific coast.

overland route. If they went by water they could either sail around Cape Horn, a distance of seven thousand miles, or they could cross the unhealthy Isthmus of Panama and reëmbark on the Pacific side. Those who went by the overland route made their way to Independence (near Kansas City), Missouri. This frontier town was the starting-point of a journey of more than two thousand miles across waterless plains and over steep and rocky mountains. From Independence emigrant trains could go by the Santa Fé Trail, or they could follow the Oregon Trail to the Humboldt River, where by turning to the southwest they could make their way to the western slope of the Sierras and move down into the Sacramento valley, the Promised Land of gold.

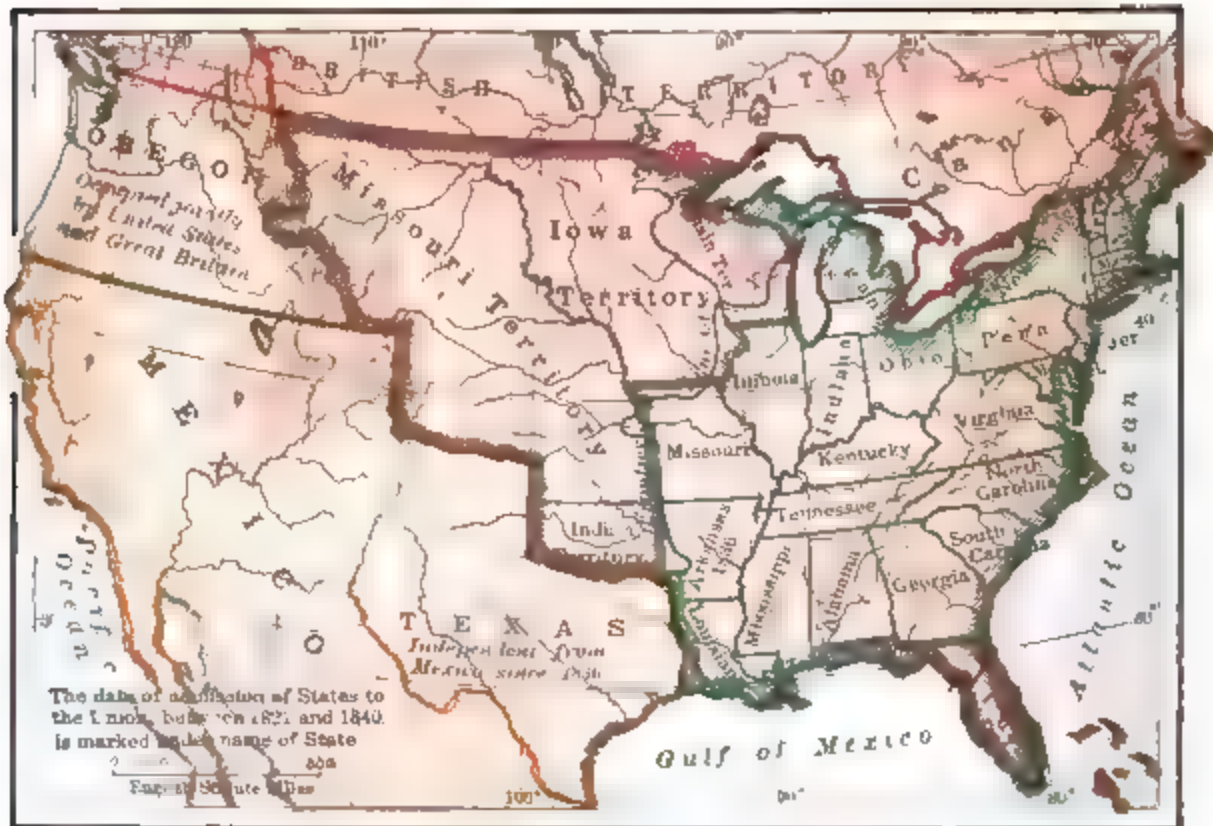
Whether he went by the Santa Fé Trail or by the Oregon Trail, the emigrant was almost sure to meet with great suffering and hardship. On the plains water was hard to get and many perished of thirst. When crossing streams, wagons were sometimes swallowed up by quicksand. On the rough paths in the mountains, vehicles were often overturned and their occupants injured or killed. Along the Oregon Trail the buffalo was extremely troublesome. "One night," wrote one of the early emigrants to California, "when we were encamped on the South Fork of the Platte, the buffaloes came in such droves that we had to sit up and fire guns and make what fuss we could to keep them from running over us and trampling us into the dust."¹



An emigrant train to California.

200. California Becomes a State.—But, in spite of danger and suffering, men hurried on to the gold-fields. By the end of 1849 about 80,000 "forty-niners" had poured into California. San Francisco in a few months was changed from a hamlet to a city. As yet Congress had given the new Territory no form of government, and for a time "law was wanting, justice was defeated, and villainy was rampant." But the Californians were now mostly Americans who loved law and order and who were going to have law and order. Without waiting for Congress to act, the leading men took matters in hand and acted for themselves. In September, 1849, they called a constitutional convention, and by the middle of October California had a constitution. The constitution was submitted to Congress, and in 1850 California was admitted as a State. So California was never a Territory. The magic touch of gold had changed it almost

¹ *Century Magazine*, Vol. XLI.



THE UNITED STATES IN 1840



THE UNITED STATES IN 1850

instantly from a sleepy Mexican province into a wide-awake American State.¹



San Francisco in 1847.

For the San Francisco of to-day, see the picture at bottom of cover lining at end of book.

201. Oregon Becomes a State.—The growth of California was accompanied by the growth of her northern neighbor. We left the Oregon settlers governing themselves under laws of their own making. After Oregon was acquired by the United States it was soon organized (in 1848) as a Territory. The rush to California threatened for a while the prosperity of Oregon. Many settlers left the Willamette valley and sought their fortunes in the gold-fields of the Sacramento region. But in a few years the tide turned toward Oregon again. In 1859 the population was thought by Congress to be sufficient for statehood, and it was admitted as a State. Salem was made the capital, but Portland then, as now, was the largest city of the State and was the commercial center of the Columbia valley.

¹ The admission of California gave rise in Congress to a great debate, an account of which is given in the next chapter.

202. The Beginnings of Utah.—During the Westward Movement of the forties the Mormons laid the foundations of Utah. The Mormons were organized as a religious society in 1830 by Joseph Smith. Their first home was in western New York, but they soon moved to Kirkland, in Ohio, and afterward to Independence, in Missouri. In 1838 they were driven out of Mis-



Salt Lake City in 1848.

souri, and a new home was found at Nauvoo, in Illinois. Here they got into trouble, and in 1847 their leader, Joseph Smith, was killed. Under their new leader, Brigham Young, they set out for a new home in the far West. In a thousand covered wagons they left Illinois and, after a long and toilsome journey

across the plains, came at last to a valley in what is now the northern part of the State of Utah. Here they found a permanent resting-place. The region in which they settled had a fertile soil, but it could be made productive only by irrigation. So the Mormons dug ditches to carry the water from the mountains down into the valley, and in a few years their valley was producing all kinds of grains and fruits. They gave to each family a certain portion of land to cultivate, and managed affairs in such a way that every one who worked had a share in the profits of the community. The Mormon settlement prospered, and in 1850 Utah Territory was organized, with Salt Lake City as its capital, and Brigham Young as its governor.

QUESTIONS ON THE TEXT

1. What was the Preëemption Law? Why did immigrants come to the United States in great numbers between 1840 and 1850?

2. Describe the Iowa country before the whites took possession of it. Why did the settlement of this region come so late? Give an account of the early settlement of Iowa. What kind of government did Iowa have before it was made a Territory? When was Iowa organized as a Territory? Give an account of the growth of Iowa from 1840 to 1850. When was this Territory admitted into the Union?

3. Give an account of the Black Hawk War. Give an account of the growth of Wisconsin. When was it admitted into the Union?

4. Why was Minnesota called "No Man's Land"? When was it organized as a Territory? What led to the rapid growth of Minnesota? When was it made a State?

5. Give an account of life in California before its conquest by the Americans.

6. When and under what circumstances was gold discovered in California? What effect did the news of this discovery have? Describe the rush to the gold-fields.

7. By what routes could California be reached from the Eastern States? Give an account of travel by the overland routes.

8. Why did California so soon become a State?

9. What effect did the discovery of gold have upon the growth of Oregon? When was Oregon admitted into the Union?

10. What was the early history of the Mormons? Give an account of the settlement of Utah. When was Utah made a Territory?

REVIEW AND READING REFERENCES

1. Dates: 1588, 1733, 1792, 1825, 1832, 1837, 1846.

2. Places: Plymouth, Boston, Fort Duquesne, Saratoga, Marietta, Vera Cruz.

3. Persons: Cabot, Drake, Hudson, Boone, Madison, Tecumseh, Calhoun, Clay, Webster, De Witt Clinton, Fulton, W. H. Harrison, Tyler, Polk, Taylor.

4. Tell what you can about: the voyage of Magellan; the Plymouth colony; the First Continental Congress; the Declaration of Independence; the settlement of Kentucky; the settlement of Tennessee; the settlement of Ohio; the Ordinance of 1787; the spoils system; nullification; the first steamboat; the Erie Canal; the election of 1840; the annexation of Texas; the acquisition of Oregon; the treaty of Guadalupe.

5. Topics: The Territory of Iowa: 26, 232-271. Minnesota Territory: 28, 86-133. Captain Abraham Lincoln: 30, 28-45. Madison: 34, 235-264. Des Moines: 34, 301-330. Chicago: 34, 197-234. Minneapolis and St. Paul: 34, 265-300. Discovery of gold in California: 15 (Vol. I), 241-271. John Augustus Sutter: 6, 186-195.

XXXIII

THE ADMINISTRATION OF ZACHARY TAYLOR AND MILLARD FILLMORE (1849-53)

The study of slavery leads to the feeling that in this instance the mantle of charity cannot be too broad : it needs to be stretched over both North and South. For all slave-owners were not vicious ; all antislavery men were not enemies or wishers of evil to the South.—*F. E. Chadwick.*

Introduction.—In the last two chapters we learned that between 1840 and 1850 the energies of the American people were bent chiefly upon acquiring new territory and developing and organizing new States. In 1850 the people were brought face to face with the slavery question, and for many years thereafter this great question held the chief place in their hearts and minds. In this chapter we shall study the institution of slavery as it existed in the United States sixty years ago, and shall learn of the effort which was made in 1850 to solve the slavery problem.

203. The Election of 1848; Taylor and Fillmore.—In 1848 it was plainly foreseen that the slavery question must soon arise, yet in the presidential campaign of that year neither of the great parties said a word about the subject. The Whigs said nothing about anything; they made no platform. They nominated General Zachary Taylor of Louisiana for President and Millard Fillmore of New York for Vice-President. Clay was in the race for the Whig nomination, but on the first ballot Taylor showed greater strength.¹ The Democrats made a long platform, but it was silent on the subject of slavery. They nominated for President Lewis Cass (p. 245) of Michigan. The Free-Soil party, made up of those Whigs and Democrats who were opposed to slavery, held a convention at Buffalo and nominated ex-President Van Buren for the Presidency. The Free-Soilers in their platform came out against slavery in the

¹ This was the fifth time Clay had come forward as a candidate for the Presidency.

strongest terms. Congress, they said, has no more right to make a slave than it has to make a king; there must be a free soil for a free people; there must be no more slave States and no more slave Territories. Taylor was not a great statesman, but in the Mexican War he had shown himself to be a good fighting man, and for that reason he was a favorite with the people. The Whigs won the election, and Taylor was inaugurated as President in March, 1849. On July 4, 1850, he suddenly fell ill, and in a few days died. He was succeeded by Vice-President Fillmore.



Zachary Taylor.

Born in Virginia, in 1784; served in the War of 1812, and in the wars against the Black Hawks and the Seminoles; commanded in northern Mexico during the Mexican War; became twelfth President in 1849; died at Washington, in 1850.

204. Slavery in the United States in 1850.—At the beginning of Taylor's administration the great question before the country was slavery. In order to understand this question as it presented itself to the statesmen of the time, it will be necessary to learn the leading facts about slavery as it existed in the United States in 1850.

Before the admission of California (1850) there were fifteen free States and fifteen slave States.¹ The population of the free States was about 13,000,000; that of the slave States was about 9,000,000. The number of slaves was a little over 3,000,000. The number of slaveholders was a little less than 350,000. In the slave States about one person in twenty was a slaveholder. But the majority of slaveholders owned only a few slaves each—one or two or three or four. These small slaveholders lived for the most part in Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, Kentucky, and Tennessee. In these States slavery was largely a household arrangement, as it was in Judea in the times of Abraham,

¹ The slave States were Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, Texas, Arkansas, Missouri, Kentucky, and Tennessee.

or as it was in New England in colonial times (p. 82). The slave of the small slaveholder worked in the house, in the garden, and on the small farm. Sometimes he worked in the field by the side of his master. His service was largely personal, and there was a real human bond between him and his master. But



Millard Fillmore.

Born at Summer Hill, New York, in 1800; studied law, member of Congress; elected Vice-President, 1846; succeeded as thirteenth President (1850-53) upon the death of President Taylor, unsuccessful candidate for the Presidency in 1856; died in 1874.

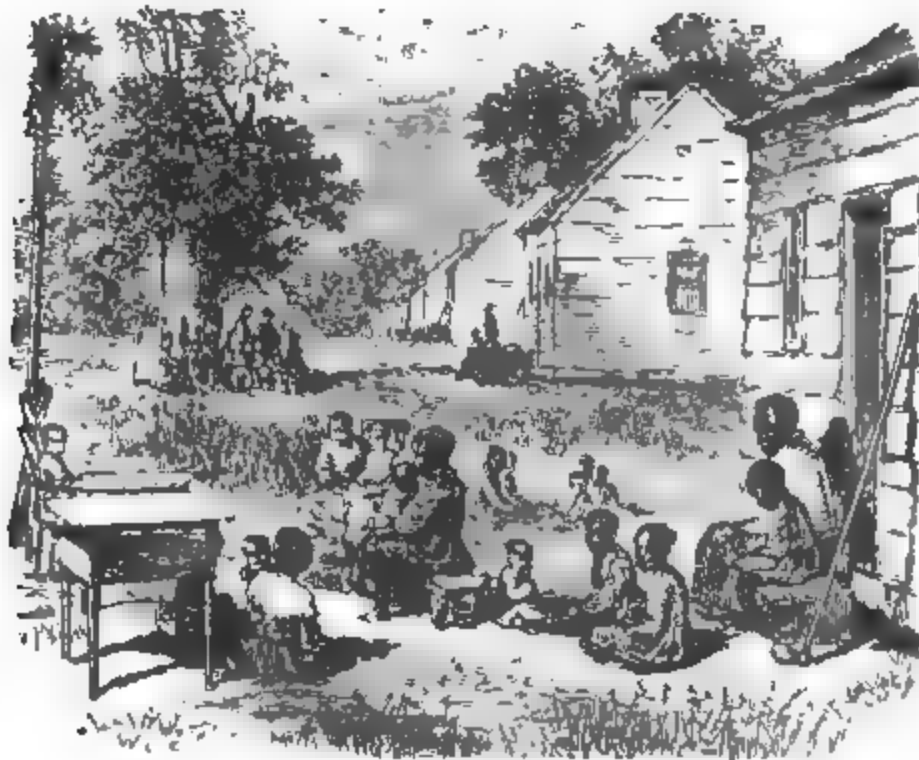
there were 8000 slaveholders in the South who owned fifty or more slaves each. On many of the largest plantations there were several hundred slaves. President Taylor himself had more than a thousand slaves on his plantation in Louisiana. The large slaveholders lived for the most part in the cotton States. On the large cotton plantations slavery was often simply a business arrangement. The slave was placed by his master under the charge of an overseer, whose duty was to get as much work out of the slave as possible in order that the plantation might yield as great a profit as possible.

Under what conditions did the slaves live? How were they treated by their masters? As a rule, slaves were properly fed, clothed, and sheltered. It was to the interest of their masters that they should be. In 1850 a good slave was worth from \$1000 to \$1500, and a prudent master would no more starve or unduly expose a slave than he would starve or unduly expose an extremely valuable horse. Even on the great cotton plantations, where the life of the slave was the hardest, the negroes usually were provided with comfortable homes.

The treatment of the slave depended to some extent upon himself. If he was worthless and lazy, he was whipped to his work, for slavery cannot very well dispense with the occasional use of the lash. More often the treatment received by the slave depended upon the kind of man the master was. The kind-

hearted master treated his slaves as human beings ought to be treated. Yet there were a few hard-hearted masters who treated their slaves in a very cruel and brutal manner. But almost everywhere in the South public sentiment was against the brutal treatment of slaves, and the cruel master was looked down upon and shunned by his neighbors.

In respect to buying and selling, slaves were precisely like any other kind of property, and one of the worst evils of slavery was the breaking up of families by selling the members to differ-



Negro quarters on a plantation.

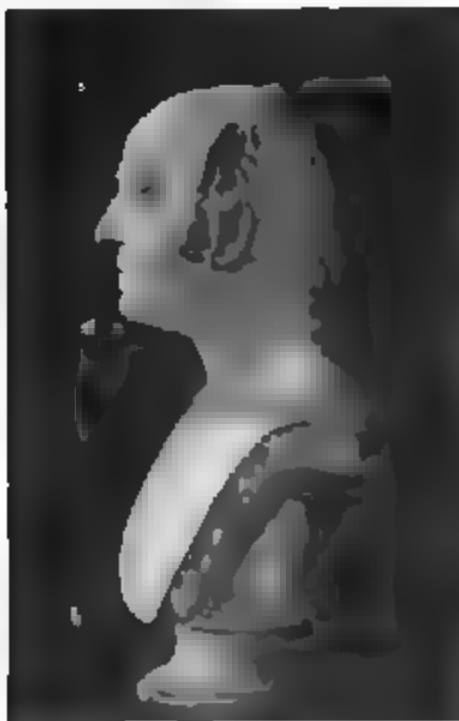
ent owners. But kind masters would not, if they could avoid it, sell the husband apart from the wife or sell young children away from their mother.

In matters of education the slave fared badly. As a rule, he was kept in the darkest ignorance. In most of the slave States it was unlawful for anybody to teach a negro to read or write. In several States, however, it was lawful for masters themselves to instruct their slaves, and kind masters sometimes would teach their negroes the rudiments of reading and writing. In matters of religion the slaves were not neglected. They were given oral

instruction in the Bible, they had their negro preachers, and they joined heartily in religious exercises.

In the early days of the Republic many people of the South thought that slavery was wrong. Washington, Jefferson, and Madison were all slaveholders, yet they were all opposed to slavery. By 1850, however, most of the white people of the South had come to believe that slavery was a good thing. They believed that the teachings of the Bible upheld slavery; they contended that it was better for the negro to be a civilized slave on a cotton plantation than to be a savage in the jungles of Africa; they said that the black slave at the South, who had all his wants supplied by his master, was happier and more contented than the white mill-hand of the North, who was dependent upon his wages for his daily bread and who sometimes lacked the necessities of life.

In the North by 1850 many thousands of thoughtful people regarded slavery as a great evil. This feeling against slavery



William Lloyd Garrison

Born at Newburyport, Massachusetts, in 1805; president of the American Antislavery Society, 1843-65; died in 1879.

had been aroused by the abolitionists, men who wished to get rid of slavery, root and branch, cost what it might, suffer who might. The great leader of the abolitionists was William Lloyd Garrison. In 1831 this remarkable man published the first number of his famous newspaper *The Liberator*. In his paper Garrison said: "I shall strenuously contend for the immediate enfranchisement of our slave population. I will be as harsh as truth and as uncompromising as justice. I do not wish to think, or speak, or write with moderation. I am in earnest. I will not retreat a single inch, and I will be heard."

And truly Garrison was heard. His newspaper had a wide circulation, and it gave great strength to the abolition movement.

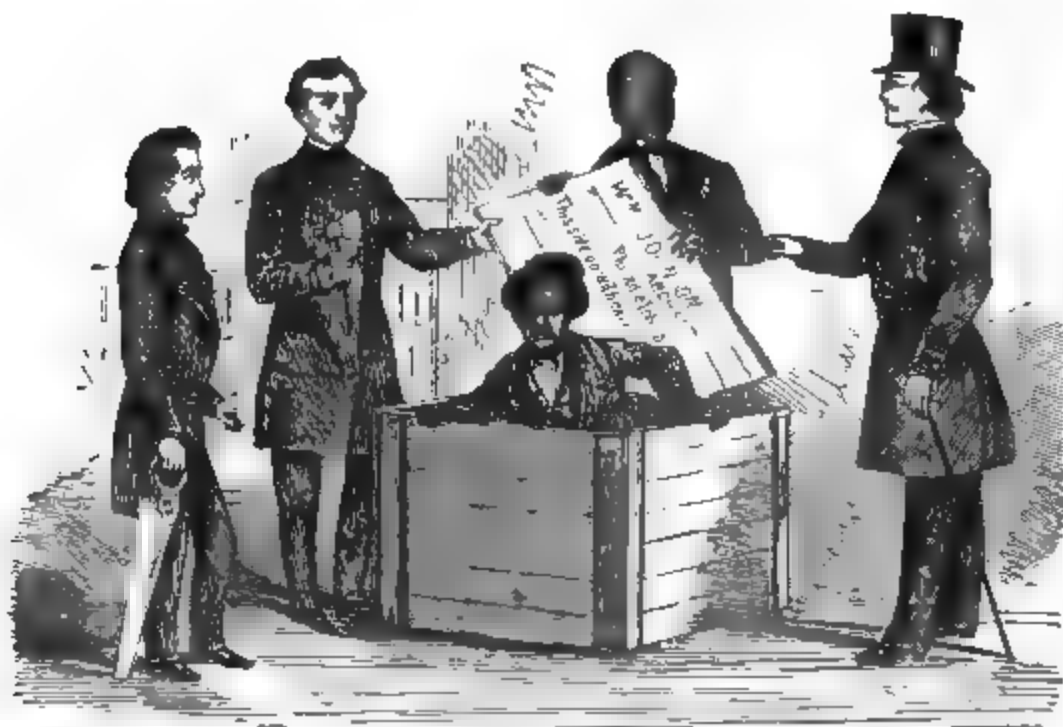
In 1835 there were in the North 200 abolition societies; in 1840 there were 2000 of these societies. For a long time the abolitionists stood for a despised cause. Even in the North the leading men were against them. Sometimes they could not get a hall in which to hold their meetings and were obliged to meet secretly in stable-lofts. Frequently their meetings were broken up. Garrison himself was mobbed in the streets of Boston.

The abolitionists did two things which were very displeasing to the South. They sent into the South, through the mails, newspapers, pamphlets, and books which were intended to stir up a feeling against slavery and which were likely to cause the slaves to revolt against their masters. Then the abolitionists assisted in the escape of fugitive slaves. Slaves, in the hope of gaining their freedom, would often slip away from their

masters and make their way North, hiding in the woods in the daytime and following the north star at night. When the fugitive reached Pennsylvania or Ohio he was often met by officers of the "underground railroad," which was not a railroad at all, but a secret organization composed mainly of abolitionists, whose purpose it was to aid runaway slaves to reach Canada, where everybody was free. If the master could find a slave anywhere in the United States, he could by law seize the fugitive and take him back home, but if the runaway could get his foot on Canadian soil he was safe. When taken in charge by the underground railroad the fugitives were passed along in a secret manner from place to place. "Forty-seven slaves," said one of the conductors of the underground railroad, "I guided toward the north star. I piloted them through the frosty North mostly by night: men dressed in women's clothes, and women dressed in men's clothes; on foot and on horseback, in carriages, under loads of hay." In one instance the runaway was nailed up in a box and shipped as freight. Through the assistance of this underground railroad



Heading of *The Liberator*, Garrison's abolition newspaper.



Opening the box containing the runaway negro sent as freight.

From "The Underground Railroad," by William Still.

the slaveholders of the South were, by 1850, losing hundreds of their slaves and millions of dollars every year.

205. The Compromise of 1850.—At the beginning of Taylor's administration, then, the South and the North were already considerably excited over the subject of slavery. When Congress met in 1849, the question of admitting California came up and at once gave rise to a bitter quarrel between the two sections. The quarrel had really begun several years before. In 1846, when a bill was on its passage through Congress giving money to Polk to aid him in acquiring New Mexico and California, David Wilmot, a member of the House, offered an amendment to the bill providing that slavery should be forever prohibited in the territory that might be acquired from Mexico. This amendment, known as the *Wilmot Proviso*, caused more trouble, perhaps, than any other measure ever proposed by an American statesman, for it woke up the question which since the days of the Missouri Compromise (p. 223) had been allowed to slumber, the question of the extension of slavery. The Proviso was defeated in 1846, but it came up before Congress again and again.

It came up in 1849, when California applied for admission,

and there came up with it several other important questions connected with slavery. Should California come in as a free State or as a slave State? If it should come in as a free State there would be sixteen free States and fifteen slave States, and the balance of power (p. 224) between North and South would be destroyed. Should slavery be allowed in the Territories of New Mexico and Utah? The South asked that these Territories be thrown open to slavery. Should slavery be prohibited in the District of Columbia? The North desired that it should be; the South desired that it should not be. Should Congress enact a fugitive-slave law that would enable a master to retake his runaway slave in spite of the abolitionists and the underground railroad? The South asked for such a law.

The above were important questions before Congress in 1849 and 1850. They gave rise to a great debate in which Clay, Calhoun, and Webster were the leaders. Clay, as was to be expected, treated the questions in a spirit of compromise. "Let me say," he said, "to the North and to the South what husband and wife say to each other: we have mutual faults; neither of us is perfect; nothing in the form of humanity is perfect. Let us then be kind to each other, forbearing, forgiving each other's faults, and, above all, let us live in happiness and peace together." In this spirit of good will and friendliness Clay asked Congress to adopt a plan of settlement that would satisfy both North and South. His plan was:

- (1) To admit California as a free State.
- (2) To give New Mexico and Utah territorial government, without making provision one way or the other as to slavery.
- (3) To prohibit the *slave-trade* in the District of Columbia, but not slavery.
- (4) To enact a fugitive-slave law strict enough to enable a master to capture a runaway slave.

Calhoun, the leader of the South, was present in the Senate during the debate, wrapped in flannels and battling with death. He was too weak to deliver his speech, but it was read for him by a fellow-Senator. He was opposed to Clay's plan. He did not believe that under the Constitution Congress had any right

to keep slavery out of California or any other territory belonging to the United States, and he would not have the South give up any right which was hers under the Constitution.



John C. Calhoun.

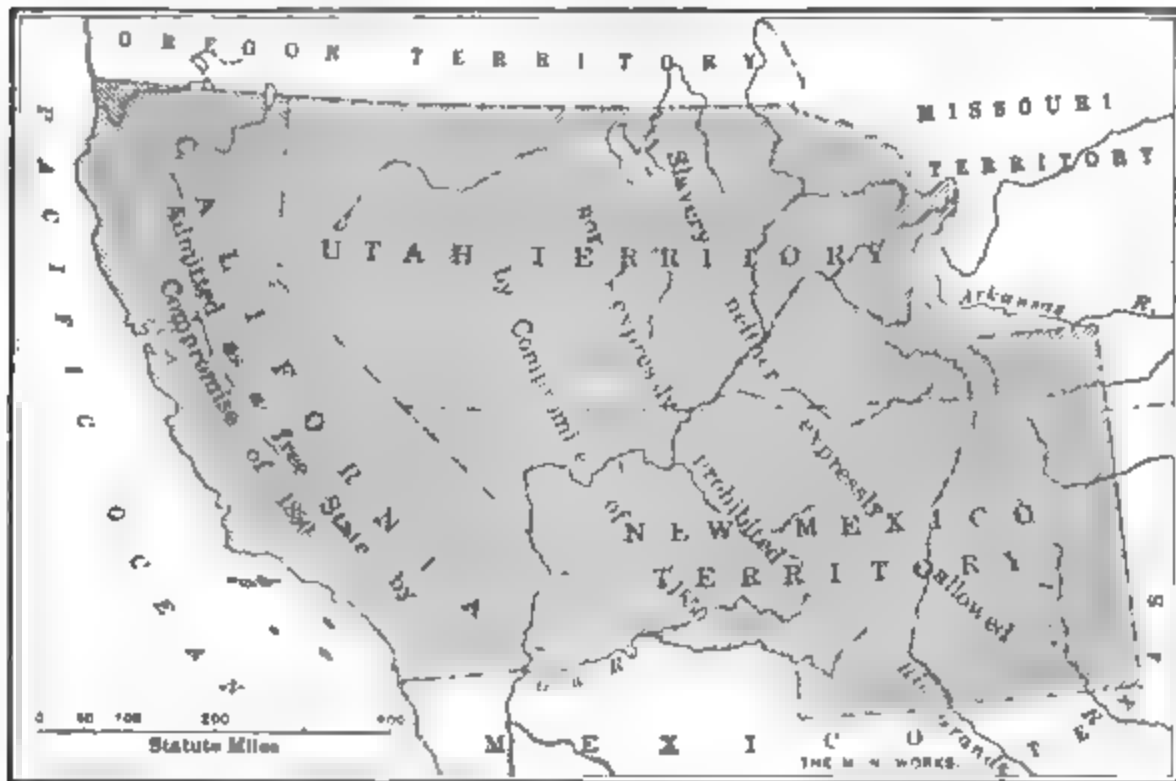
Born in South Carolina, in 1782, graduated at Yale, member of Congress; Secretary of War; Vice-President, 1825-32; member of the Senate; Secretary of State; author of the "doctrine of nullification"; died in 1850.

Webster, in one of the greatest speeches of his life, supported Clay's plan. He believed that the Union was in danger, and he thought that it could only be saved by a compromise. "I wish to speak to-day," he said, "not as a Massachusetts man, not as a Northern man, but as an American. I speak to-day for the preservation of the Union." Other leaders rallied to the support of Clay's plan, and (in October, 1850) it took the form of a series of laws known as the Compromise of 1850, sometimes called the Omnibus Bill

because it included so many subjects.

206. The Fugitive-Slave Law of 1850.—Everybody now hoped that the slavery question was settled and that the North and the South would again move along in peace and harmony. But it soon became plain that there was more trouble ahead. The new Fugitive-Slave Law was very severe. It gave the officers of the United States government the power to turn over any negro who was claimed as an escaped slave to the person claiming him, and did not allow the negro to give testimony in his own behalf. The law also made it the duty of citizens to assist in the capture of runaway slaves. The law was very offensive to the people of the North, and in many places it was fiercely resisted.

207. The Passing Away of Three Great Leaders.—With the debate on the Compromise of 1850 the public career of Calhoun, Clay, and Webster was practically brought to a close. Indeed, Calhoun did not live through the debate, for he died in March, 1850. In his day he was the ablest champion of the South. He



Results upon slavery of the Compromise of 1850.

loved the Union, but he loved what he thought were the constitutional rights of the southland more. In June, 1852, Clay passed away. He failed to win the Presidency, but he won the affection of the American people. "Other Americans have been intellectually greater, others have been more painstaking, others still have been greater benefactors to our country, yet no man has been loved as the people of the United States loved Henry Clay" (J. F. Rhodes). Webster survived Clay only four months. Like Clay, Webster went to his grave bitterly disappointed because he had failed to be elected President. Yet if he had won the Presidency he would have added but little to his fame and glory. His great work in strengthening and uplifting the Union has given him a place in our history higher and more honorable than that held by most of our Presidents.

QUESTIONS ON THE TEXT

1. Give an account of the presidential election of 1848.
2. What was the number of slaves in 1850? Of slaveholders? How did household slavery differ from plantation slavery? How were the slaves treated by their masters? How did the slave fare in respect to

education? In respect to religion? What were the views of Southern people in regard to slavery? Give an account of the Abolition movement. In what two ways did the abolitionists displease the South?

3. What was the Wilmot Proviso? What great questions came up before Congress in 1849? What was Clay's plan of compromise? Give an account of the debate in Congress on Clay's plan.

4. What were the provisions of the Fugitive-Slave Law of 1850?

5. What great leader died in 1850? What two died in 1852? What can be said of the services of these three leaders?

REVIEW AND READING REFERENCES

1. Dates: 1522, 1682 (2), 1781, 1787, 1802 (2), 1821, 1837, 1846, 1850.

2. Places: Schenectady, Bunker Hill, Yorktown, Vera Cruz, Detroit.

3. Persons: John Winthrop, Champlain, Marquette, La Salle, Burr, Monroe, J. Q. Adams, W. H. Harrison, Tyler, Polk, Taylor, Cass.

4. Tell what you can about: the Line of Demarcation; Bacon's Rebellion; the treaty of 1783; the Monroe Doctrine; the Missouri Compromise; the tariff of 1816; the tariff of abominations; the election of 1840; the annexation of Texas; the acquisition of Oregon; the treaty of Guadalupe; the settlement of Michigan; the settlement of Iowa; the discovery of gold in California; the settlement of Oregon.

5. Topics: An abolition argument: 3, 242-244. A Southern defense of slavery: 3, 244-248. A slave's narrative: 3, 255-257. The compromise of 1850: 3, 279-281. The underground railroad: 15 (Vol. I), 263-293. W. L. Garrison: 8, 192-198. Daniel Webster: 14, 377. John C. Calhoun: 22, 241-246.

XXXIV

FRANKLIN PIERCE; JAMES BUCHANAN

And so he [Lincoln] came.
From prairie cabin up to Capitol,
One fair Ideal led our chieftain on.
Forevermore he hurried to do his deed
With the fine stroke and gesture of a king.
Edwin Markham.

THE ADMINISTRATION OF FRANKLIN PIERCE (1853-57)

208. The Election of 1852.—In the presidential campaign of 1852 both the Whigs and the Democrats declared in their platforms that they stood by the Compromise of 1850. The Whigs nominated General Winfield Scott, hoping that his war record (p. 258) would carry them into power. The Democrats nominated Franklin Pierce of New Hampshire and swept the country, carrying every State but four. When Pierce took his seat in March, 1853, he was forty-eight years old and was the youngest man that had as yet sat in the presidential chair.¹ He was brave, handsome, and well educated, and he had the best wishes of his countrymen in all sections of the Union.

209. The Kansas-Nebraska Bill.—For a time after the election of Pierce it seemed that the slavery question really had been settled. The spirit of compromise, which in Congress had brought forth the Omnibus Bill, became in large measure the spirit of men everywhere. The people of the North ceased to resist the Fugitive-Slave Law; the underground railroad carried very few passengers; politics and slavery were almost forgotten, and a second "era of good feeling" (p. 222) seemed at hand.

But the question of slavery could not be kept down. In 1854

¹ In July, 1853, President Pierce opened an exhibition held in the Crystal Palace in New York. This was our first great exposition. It was attended by vast throngs of people and the articles exhibited came from every part of the United States and from all the leading nations of the world.

Stephen A. Douglas of Illinois brought into the Senate a bill to organize the Nebraskan Territory—a region which comprised what are now the States of Kansas, Nebraska, North Dakota, South Dakota, Montana, and parts of Wyoming and Colorado. All this country was north of the parallel of $36^{\circ} 30'$, and by the terms of the Missouri Compromise (p. 224) was closed against slavery. But Douglas proposed to throw it open to slavery and thus do away with the Missouri Compromise. His bill—known as the Kansas-Nebraska Bill—in its final form provided for two



Franklin Pierce.

Born in New Hampshire, in 1804; member of Congress, 1833-37; United States Senator, 1837-42; general in the Mexican War; fourteenth President, 1853-57; died in 1869.

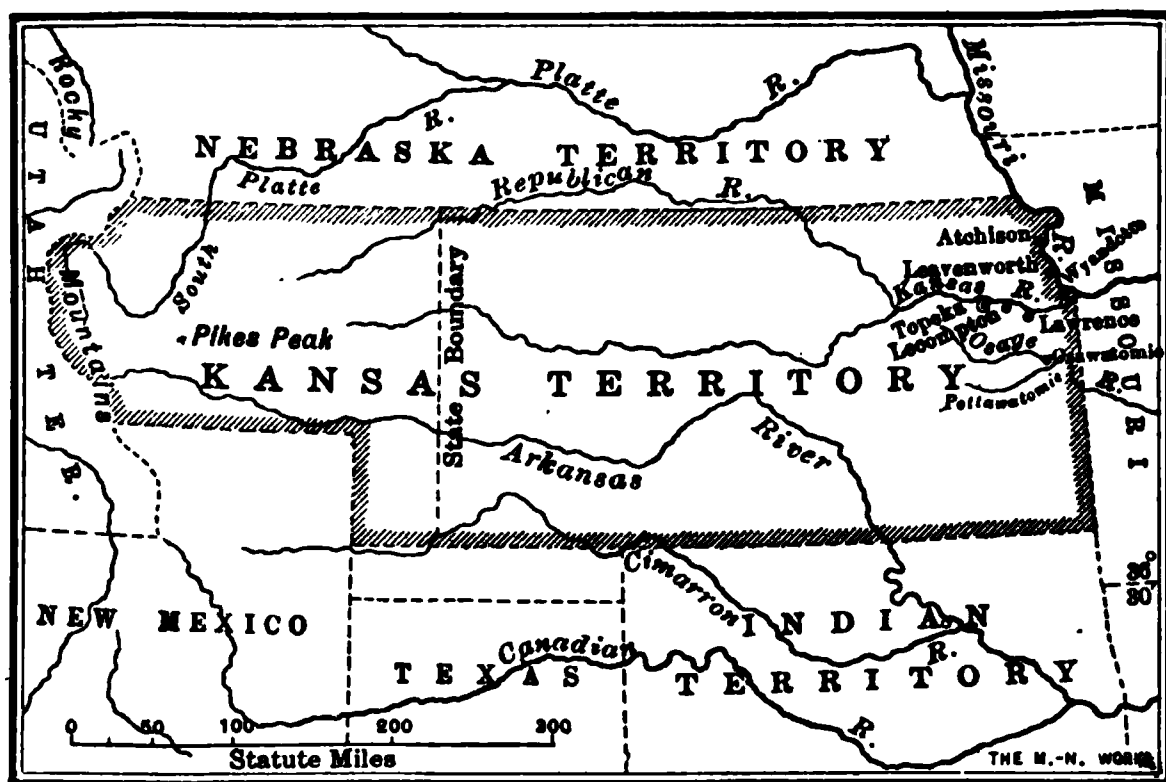
Territories, Kansas and Nebraska. The question of slavery in the new Territories was to be settled by what Douglas called popular or "squatter" sovereignty: the people of each Territory were to vote on the question of slavery; if the majority of votes were cast in favor of slavery, it was to be a slave Territory, but if the majority of votes were cast against slavery, then it was to be a free Territory. "If they wish slavery," said Douglas, "they have a right to it." The bill was violently opposed in Congress, but Douglas was a powerful leader and next to Henry Clay was the most popular man that had yet ap-

peared in American politics. He pushed his bill with whip and spur, and in May, 1854, it was passed by Congress and signed by the President. So the Kansas-Nebraska Bill repealed the Missouri Compromise and threw these Territories open to slavery.

All the good done by the Compromise of 1850 was undone by the Kansas-Nebraska Bill. The North felt that in repealing the Missouri Compromise the South had violated a solemn pledge, and the resentment against the bill in the North was very bitter. Douglas, who had before been so popular, became an object of

hatred. He could travel, he said, from Boston to Chicago by the light of his own effigies. Opposition to the Fugitive-Slave Law broke out again. In Boston people of wealth and refinement resisted officers of the law in their attempts to retake runaway slaves. The underground railroad was started again. In several of the States—as in Vermont and Rhode Island—the legislatures passed what were called Personal Liberty Laws, which had the effect, and which were intended to have the effect, of making it difficult for officers to carry out the fugitive-slave laws passed by Congress. In spirit the Personal Liberty Laws were nullification laws (p. 166).

Under the Kansas-Nebraska Act it was possible to carry slavery into the vast Northwest. The South, therefore, was as much delighted by the measure as the North was embittered by it. So the effect of the Kansas-Nebraska Law was to stir men deeply both at the North and at the South on the subject of slavery. After 1854 every man in the land had to answer this question: Are you for slavery or are you against slavery?



Scene of the struggle in Kansas.

210. The Struggle in Kansas.—The first blows in the slavery conflict were struck in Kansas. Even before the Kansas-Nebraska Bill became a law, emigrants from Missouri and Arkansas were rushing into Kansas with the purpose of making it a slave State, while emigrants from the Northern States were

hurrying to the new Territory with the purpose of making it a free State. The slave-State people settled along the Missouri River and founded the towns of Atchison, Leavenworth, and Lecompton. The free-State people settled along the Kansas River and founded the towns of Topeka, Lawrence, and Osawatomie. By the terms of the Kansas-Nebraska Law the question of slavery in Kansas was to be determined by the votes of the people. The election which was held to determine this question gave rise to a contest which split Kansas into two warring factions, the free-State men and the slave-State men. In 1855 the free-State men drew up at Topeka a constitution which prohibited slavery, but the slave-State men would have nothing whatever to do with the Topeka constitution.

The quarrel between the two factions soon resulted in violence and outrage. In May, 1856, the town of Lawrence was sacked by a mob of slave-State men. In revenge, John Brown, with four sons and three other men, went along Pottawatomie Creek at midnight and killed five slave-State men.

In 1857 the slave-State men drew up at Lecompton a constitu-



Constitution Hall, Lecompton, Kansas.

The legislature of 1857 met in this building, and the Lecompton constitution was drawn up here. The building is still standing.

tion which allowed slavery, but when the constitution was submitted to the voters it was rejected by them. By this time the free-State people were in the majority, and their majority was rapidly increasing. In 1859 a constitutional convention met at Wyandotte and

drew up a constitution forbidding slavery, and when this was submitted to the people it was ratified by a vote of two to one. So, after a long and bloody struggle, it was at last settled that Kansas should be a free State, although she was not actually admitted until 1861.

211. The Attack upon Sumner.—About the time excitement in Kansas was at the highest, Senator Charles Sumner of Massachusetts was assaulted by Preston Brooks, a Representative

from South Carolina. In May, 1856, Sumner delivered in the Senate a speech which the South regarded as offensive. The speech was aimed especially at Senator Butler of South Carolina. Two days after this speech was delivered, Brooks, who was a cousin of Butler, entered the Senate chamber and said to Sumner, who was sitting at his desk engaged in writing: "I have read your speech twice over carefully. It is a libel on South Carolina and Mr. Butler, who is a relative of mine." As Brooks pronounced the last word, he struck the Senator a heavy blow on the head with a cane. Sumner was a powerful man, but the blow stunned him and he could make no resistance. Brooks followed up the first blow with others, and by the time the last blow was struck Sumner was bleeding profusely and was in an insensible condition. Although Brooks was not expelled from the House for his conduct, he nevertheless resigned of his own free will, but was reëlected almost unanimously by his district. This incident caused more bitter feeling between the North and the South than perhaps anything that had yet occurred.

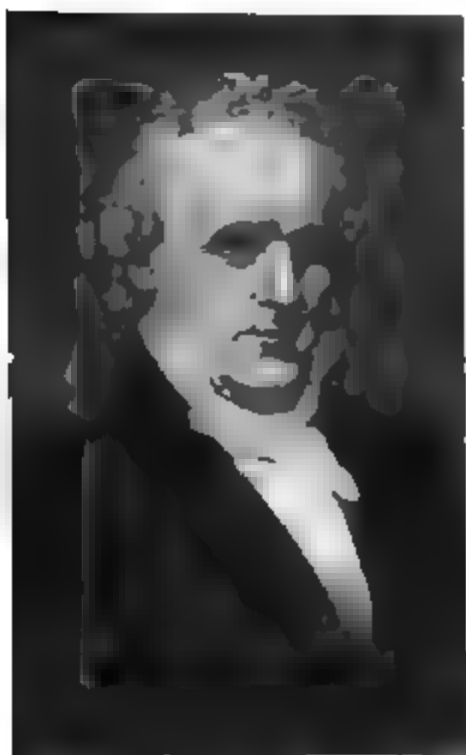
212. The Election of 1856; the Rise of the Republican Party.

—While men were discussing the troubles in Kansas and the Sumner affair they were also preparing for a presidential election. The Whig party had perished in 1852 with the defeat of Scott. By 1856 a new party was coming to the front. In 1854, just after the passage of the Kansas-Nebraska Bill, several thousand citizens of Michigan met in an oak-grove on the outskirts of the town of Jackson and resolved to act together in opposition to slavery. They also resolved to be known as "Republicans" until the fight with slavery should be brought to an end. They recommended that a national convention of the free States be called, and nominated candidates for the State offices. This open-air meeting under the oaks at Jackson was the beginning of the great organization which is known to-day as the Republican party.

The Republicans met with success in several States in 1854 and 1855, and by 1856 they had a strong organization. In that year they held a national convention at Philadelphia and adopted a platform which declared against the spread of slavery in the

Territories and for the admission of Kansas as a free State. They nominated for President John C. Frémont (p. 259) of California. The Democrats nominated James Buchanan of Pennsylvania and elected him.¹

THE ADMINISTRATION OF JAMES BUCHANAN (1857-61)



James Buchanan.

Born in Pennsylvania, in 1791; member of Congress, minister to Russia; United States Senator; Secretary of State; minister to Great Britain; fifteenth President, 1857-61, died in 1868.

213. The Dred Scott Decision.

—Buchanan was inaugurated on the 4th of March, 1857. Two days later the Supreme Court of the United States pronounced its decision in the Dred Scott case. Scott was a slave who had been taken by his master first to Illinois, where slavery was prohibited by the Ordinance of 1787; then to Minnesota Territory, where slavery was prohibited by the Missouri Compromise; and then to Missouri, a slave State. After several years' residence in Missouri, Scott brought suit in the United States Circuit Court of Missouri for his freedom, on the ground that his residence in free Illinois and free Minnesota had made him a free-

man. His case was tried by several courts and finally the Supreme Court of the United States decided that, since Scott was a negro whose ancestors were slaves, he was not a citizen of Missouri, and that because he was not a citizen he had no right

¹ The Native American party also had a candidate for President in 1856. This party was composed mainly of members of the old Whig party and of discontented Northern Democrats. The chief aim of this party was to prevent foreign-born citizens from holding office. It held its meetings in secret, and when a member of the party was asked any question about political matters, he would always reply, "I don't know." So the Native American party came to be known as the Know-Nothing party. It died out soon after the election of 1856.

to bring a case into court. The court declared that the Constitution was intended to apply only to the white race, asserting that when the Constitution was adopted "negroes were so far inferior that they had no rights which the white man was bound to respect." The court went further and declared that the Missouri Compromise was contrary to the Constitution and that Congress had no right to prevent the spread of slavery into the Territories. So Scott failed to gain his freedom.

The decision made the people of the North very angry, for it cut the very ground from under the feet of those who were fighting against the extension of slavery. In the South, on the other hand, the people rejoiced when they heard that the highest court in the land was on their side and on the side of slavery.

214. The Lincoln-Douglas Debates.—The excitement aroused by the Dred Scott decision in 1857 was intensified in the following year by the Lincoln-Douglas debates. Stephen A. Douglas in 1858 was a candidate for reelection to the United States Senate, and Abraham Lincoln was his opponent. The story of Lincoln's life up to the time of this debate has been told by himself in the following words:

"I was born February 12, 1809, in Hardin County, Kentucky. . . . My father removed from Kentucky to what is now Spencer County, Indiana, in my eighth year. . . . There I grew up. There were some schools, so called, but no qualification was ever required of a teacher beyond readin', writin', and cipherin' to the rule of three. Of course when I came of age I did not know much. I have not been to school since. I was raised to farm-work, which I continued until I was twenty-two. At twenty-one I came to Illinois, Macon County. Then I got to New Salem, where I remained a year as a sort of clerk in



Stephen Arnold Douglas.

Born in Vermont, in 1813; studied law; elected judge of the Supreme Court of Illinois; member of Congress and of the Senate; died in 1861.

a store. Then came the Black Hawk War, and I was elected a captain of volunteers, which gave me more pleasure than any I have had since. I ran for the legislature the same year (1832) and was beaten, the only time I was ever beaten by the people.



In 1846 I was elected to the Lower House of Congress. . . . I was losing interest in politics when the repeal of the Missouri Compromise aroused me again. What I have done since is pretty well known. I am in height six feet four inches, nearly; lean in flesh, weighing on an average one hundred and eighty pounds; dark complexion, with coarse black hair and gray eyes."

In the campaign for the senatorship Lincoln and Douglas

spoke in joint debate from the same platform, Lincoln taking the side against the further extension of slavery, and Douglas defending his doctrine of "popular sovereignty." The debates attracted the attention of the entire country, and the meetings were attended by thousands. Douglas won the senatorship, but in the debates Lincoln showed himself to be a man of such great power that the people of the North began to look to him as the natural leader of the forces that were opposed to slavery.

215. John Brown's Raid.—After the Dred Scott decision the quarrel between the North and the South over slavery was bitter enough, but it was soon made more bitter by an event which is known as John Brown's Raid. In 1859 John Brown, the same man whom we saw engaged in the Kansas struggle, rented a farm-house about six miles north of Harper's Ferry, in Virginia. Here he planned to march into Virginia with a few followers and stir up the negroes and cause them to rebel against their masters and thus gain their freedom. On the night of October 17, 1859, Brown left the farm-house with about twenty companions and went to Harper's Ferry and seized the arsenal there and took possession of the village. He shot down a few innocent men and set free a few slaves, but there was no general uprising of the negroes; they remained loyal to their



Harper's Ferry, Virginia, in 1860.

masters. After Brown had held the village for a few hours, he and his band were surrounded by a small force of soldiers under Colonel Robert E. Lee and were captured and taken to the county jail. He was tried for treason and murder, was convicted, and on December 2 was hanged.

216. The Election of 1860.—The discord and disunion produced by the slavery agitation showed themselves plainly in the presidential election of 1860, when there were four candidates in the field. The Democratic party in that year found itself split in twain. The Democrats of the South, not being able to agree with Northern Democrats on the slavery question, nominated a ticket of their own and made their own platform. Their candidate for President was John C. Breckenridge of Kentucky. Their platform declared (1) that Congress had no right to abolish slavery in the Territories, and (2) that a territorial legislature had no right to abolish slavery in a Territory. The Northern Democrats nominated Stephen A. Douglas and declared for “popular sovereignty” (p. 288) in the matter of slavery. The Republicans nominated Abraham Lincoln of Illinois on a platform which (1) demanded the admission of Kansas as a free State and (2) denied the authority of Congress, or of a territorial legislature, to allow slavery in any Territory. A fourth party, known as the Constitutional Union party, nominated John Bell of Tennessee and declared for “the Constitution of the country, the Union of the States, and the enforcement of the laws.”

In the election which took place in November Lincoln received 180 electoral votes, Breckenridge 72, Bell 39, and Douglas 12. Of the popular votes Lincoln had 1,857,610; Douglas, 1,291,574; Breckenridge, 850,052; Bell, 646,124.

Thus the great Democratic party went down in defeat. With the exception of two periods of four years each, it had governed the country for sixty years. The Republican party came into power in 1861, and, with the exception of two periods of four years each, it has governed the country ever since.

QUESTIONS ON THE TEXT

1. Give an account of the presidential election of 1852.
2. What were the provisions of the Kansas-Nebraska Bill? What effect did this law have upon the slavery question?

3. Give an account of the early settlement of Kansas and of the struggle between the free-State men and the slave-State men.
4. Describe the attack of Brooks upon Sumner.
5. Give an account of the presidential election of 1856 and of the rise of the Republican party.
6. What was the Dred Scott decision?
7. Sketch the life of Abraham Lincoln up to 1858, and give an account of the Lincoln-Douglas debates.
8. Give an account of John Brown's Raid.
9. Give an account of the presidential election of 1860.

REVIEW AND READING REFERENCES

1. Dates: 1689, 1803 (2), 1812, 1832, 1837, 1850.
2. Places: St. Augustine, Jamestown, Quebec (2), New Orleans, Detroit.
3. Persons: Raleigh, Smith, Stuyvesant, Madison, Jackson, Calhoun, Clay, Webster, Cass, Fillmore.
4. Tell what you can about: the Jamestown colony; the patroons; the founding of Georgia; Queen Anne's War; King George's War; the Frontier Line in 1740; the Articles of Confederation; the Convention of 1787; the Louisiana Purchase; the Lewis and Clark expedition; the treaty of Ghent; the spoils system; nullification; the settlement of Michigan; the settlement of Iowa; the discovery of gold in California; the settlement of Oregon; the Compromise of 1850.
5. Topics: The Kansas-Nebraska Bill: 15 (Vol. 1), 294-309. Troubles in Kansas: 3, 287-289. John Brown: 3, 294-296. The Lincoln-Douglas debates: 30, 94-120. Lincoln the man of the people: 14, 399.

XXXV

PROGRESS IN CIVILIZATION BETWEEN 1800 AND 1860

“What hath God wrought?”

This sentence was written from Washington by me at the Baltimore Terminus, at 8 h. 45 min A. M. on Friday, May 24, 1844, being the first ever transmitted from Washington to Baltimore by Telegraph, and was indited by my much-loved friend Annie G. Ellsworth.

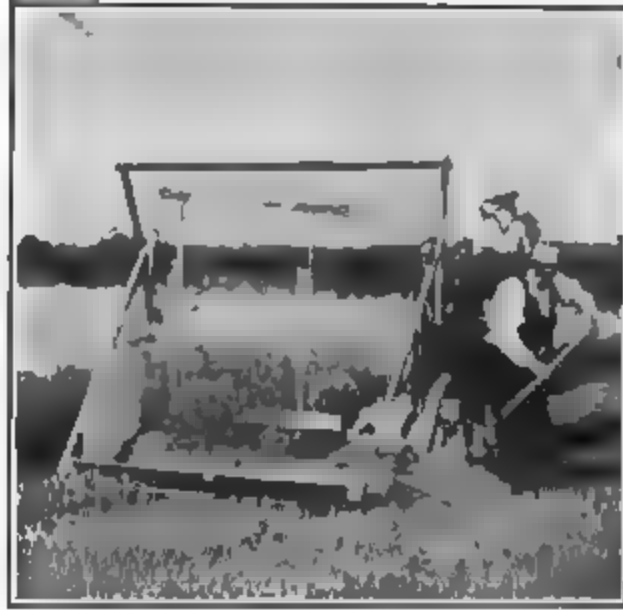
Saml. F. B. Morse, Superintendent of Elec. Mag. Telegraphs.

Introduction.—Since the election of Lincoln was a turning-point in our national history, it will be well here to leave for a while the course of political events in order to study the progress in civilization made by the American people between 1800 and 1860. In this chapter, therefore; and in the next, we shall follow the story of our country's progress from the days of Jefferson to the days of Lincoln.

217. Agriculture.—In 1800 we were a nation of farmers (p. 179), and for a long time thereafter agriculture was the chief pursuit of our people. As we advanced westward there were ever at hand vast quantities of rich land which could be cheaply bought. The settlers on this land were men of brains as well as brawn, and in the tilling of the soil they used better methods than had ever been used before. By 1825 they had thrown aside the wooden mold-board and were using the cast-iron plow. By 1835 they were using threshing-machines to separate the grain from the straw instead of beating it out with the flail or treading it out with the slow feet of oxen. By 1840 scythes were being cast aside and the McCormick reaper—first patented in 1834—was making it possible for one man with a team of horses to cut as much grain as ten men could cut with a scythe and cradle. Of course with such a boundless supply of rich soil, and with such great improvements in farm machinery, agriculture must flourish. In 1840 our farm products were worth about a billion dollars; in 1860 they were worth about two billion dollars. The leading products of the farm were cotton, tobacco, wheat, and

corn. Of these cotton left all the others far behind. In 1860 the South raised seven eighths of all the cotton used in the world.

218. The Growth of Manufacturing.—We saw (p. 204) that during the War of 1812 our manufacturing industries began to flourish and that not long after the close of the war we were making large quantities of cotton goods. The cotton industry continued to gain strength, and by 1860 six sevenths of all the cotton goods used by us were made in our own factories. The manufacturing of woolen goods also began to increase in the early years of the nineteenth century, and although it did not keep pace with the growth of cotton manufacturing, it nevertheless prospered, and by 1860 our woolen factories were turning out every year goods to the value of \$75,000,000. In the manufacture of iron our progress between 1800 and 1840 was healthful but not remarkable. During these years we used charcoal in the smelting of iron. About 1840, however, we began to use anthracite (hard) coal in the smelting, and after that the development of our iron industry proceeded at a very rapid rate. Between 1840 and 1860 the value of our iron products increased fourfold.



The first McCormick reaper.

Thus in 1860, while agriculture was still our chief pursuit, we were nevertheless making great progress in manufacturing. Indeed, manufacturing by 1860 had almost overtaken agriculture, for in that year our manufactured products were worth \$1,885,000,000, while our farm products were worth \$1,910,000,000.

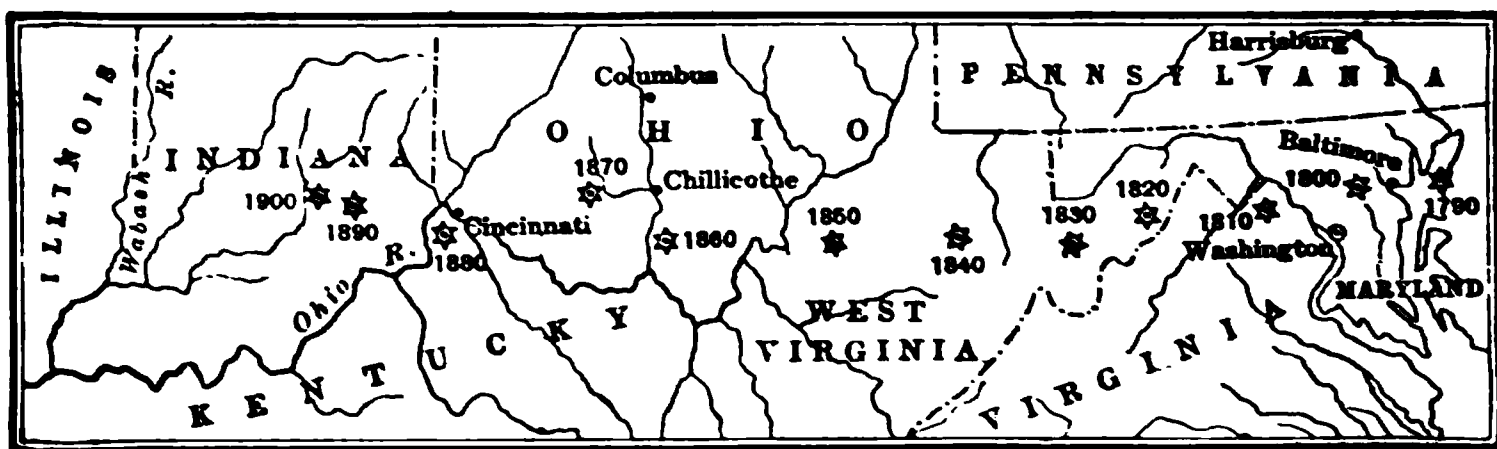
219. Commerce.—We left our foreign trade in 1800 in a most prosperous condition. It continued to flourish until the Embargo of 1807. This law was good for our manufacturing, it is

true, but it gave our foreign trade a blow from which it did not fully recover for many years.

About 1830, however, our foreign trade began to grow strong again, and by 1836 it amounted to about \$300,000,000 a year. It continued to increase, and by 1860 amounted to about \$700,000,000 a year, one half of it being imports and one half exports. Thus by 1860 we were selling to foreign countries just about as much as we were buying. As a commercial nation we were standing on our own feet.

Our inland trade in 1800 was very small, but it took new life with the appearance of the steamboat on Western rivers and with the building of good roads and canals. Especially was our inland trade enlarged by the building of railroads. After the seaboard had been connected by railroads with the Great Lakes and the Ohio River—and this had been accomplished by 1852—railroad-building proceeded faster than ever. Between 1850 and 1860 more than 30,000 miles of railroad were built in the United States. In the carrying of freight, railroads became the rivals of the steamboats and canals, and by 1860 two thirds of all our inland trade was drawn along iron roads by iron horses.

220. The Growth of Cities; the Center of Population.—With the growth of commerce and industry the towns and cities grew rapidly in number and size, and by 1860 one person in six was living in a large town or in a city. Of the seven largest cities in 1860 New York was easily the first, with a population



Center of population.

of over 800,000. Philadelphia came second, with over half a million. Next to Philadelphia came Baltimore, with a population of 212,000. The fourth place was held by St. Louis, with a

population of 190,000. Boston stood fifth, with a population of 177,000 inhabitants, New Orleans sixth, with 168,000, and Cincinnati seventh, with 161,000. In 1860 there were 141 towns and cities having 8000 inhabitants or more, and our entire city population was about 5,000,000. So in 1860 we were no longer wholly a nation of farmers.

In 1800 the center of population (map, p. 300) was about eighteen miles west of Baltimore. This point in its westward movement followed closely the thirty-ninth parallel. In 1810 the center of population had moved to a point forty miles west of Washington. By 1840 it had crossed the Alleghanies, and in 1860 it was half-way across the State of Ohio.

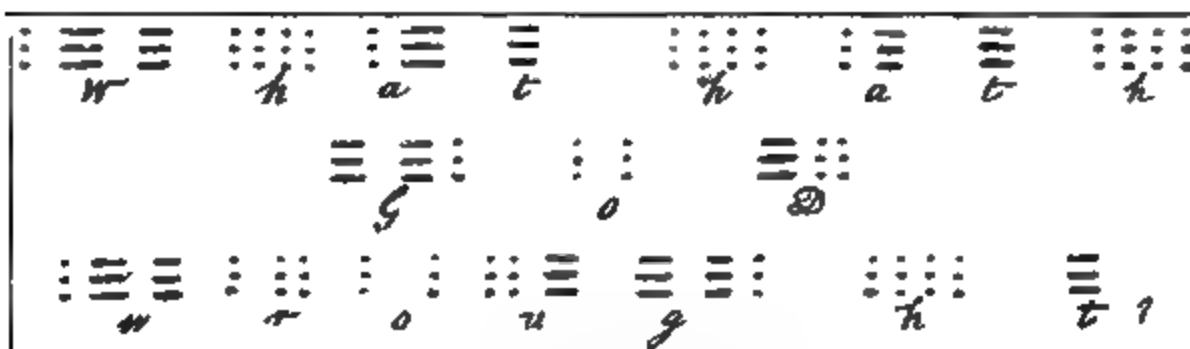
221. Inventions.—A great deal of our progress has been due to the American genius for invention. Necessity is said to be the mother of invention. This has certainly been true in American history. Whenever we have needed a thing very badly, Yankee wit has generally been ready with an invention to meet the need. We have already seen that this was true of the cotton-gin, the steamboat, and the reaper. It was also true in the case of the telegraph. In the management of trains on a railroad it was desirable that messages should be sent very quickly from one place to another. Professor S. F. B. Morse came forward in 1837 with an invention which he called the telegraph and which he claimed would send a message a hundred miles in less than the twinkling of an eye. But Morse, like most inventors, was a poor man, and he could not at once put the telegraph into successful operation. He had great faith, however, in the merits of his invention, and after a long and patient struggle secured the aid of Congress in establishing a telegraph line between



S. F. B. Morse.

Born at Charlestown, Massachusetts, in 1791; died at New York, in 1872.

Baltimore and Washington. The first message was sent over the line in 1844. By 1860 all the principal places in the



The first telegraphic message.
Sent from Washington to Baltimore, May 24, 1844.

country were connected by the telegraph, and in 1861 a telegraph line extended across the continent and connected New York and San Francisco.

The sewing-machine also illustrates the truth that necessity is the mother of invention. During the first half of the nineteenth century great improvements were made in weaving, and the looms were capable of turning out immense quantities of cloth. But in the sewing of clothes there had as yet been no improvement, the only instrument of sewing being the simple needle



Elias Howe.

Born at Spencer, Massachusetts, in 1819; died at Brooklyn, New York, in 1867. The first sewing-machine, completed by him, was patented in 1846.

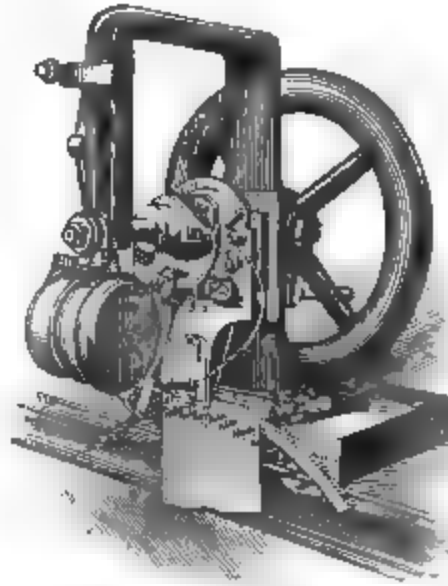
that had been in use for thousands of years. With the needle it was not possible to make into garments all the cloth that the looms were able to produce. What was needed was a machine that would do fast sewing. In 1846 Elias Howe came forward with such a machine, and in a few years not only clothes but boots and shoes and harness also were sewed on a sewing-machine.

In order to encourage invention, Congress, in 1790, provided that an inventor should be granted a patent on his invention. The patent gave to the inventor the exclusive right to make, use, and sell his in-

vention for a term of fourteen (now seventeen) years. In 1806, 306 patents were granted. By 1860 an average of nearly 5000 patents was granted every year. Nothing could show more plainly our progress in material things than this remarkable growth in the number of patents.

QUESTIONS ON THE TEXT

1. Why did agriculture for a long time remain our chief occupation?
2. Between 1800 and 1860 what progress was made in manufacturing?
3. What was the history of our foreign commerce between 1800 and 1860? What influence did the railroad have in building up our inland commerce?
4. Name the seven largest cities in the United States in 1860. Trace the westward movement of the center of population from 1800 to 1860.
5. To what extent has invention influenced our progress? Give an account of the invention of the telegraph; of the sewing-machine. In what way do we encourage invention by granting patents?



Howe's original sewing-machine.

REVIEW AND READING REFERENCES

1. Dates: 1754, 1763, 1789, 1825, 1850, 1860.
2. Places: Palos, Fort Duquesne, Marietta, Harper's Ferry.
3. Persons: Americus Vespuccius, Balboa, Cartier, Washington, Franklin, Braddock, Wolfe, Hamilton, John Adams, Tecumseh, De Witt Clinton, Fulton, Fillmore, Douglas.
4. Tell what you can about: the founding of Maryland; the French and Indian War; the beginning of political parties; Jay's treaty; the settlement of Ohio; the Ordinance of 1787; the first steamboat; the Erie Canal; the tariff of 1816; the tariff of abominations; the discovery of gold in California; the settlement of Oregon; the Compromise of 1850; the Kansas-Nebraska Bill; the struggle in Kansas; the Dred Scott decision; John Brown's Raid; the election of 1860.
5. Topics: Cyrus McCormick: 8, 166-170. Shipping and inland commerce: 18, 203-215. Application of machinery to agriculture: 18, 238-249.

XXXVI

PROGRESS IN CIVILIZATION BETWEEN 1800 AND 1860 (Continued)

We must educate or we must perish.—*Daniel Webster.*

222. The Education of the Masses.—We learned (p. 183) that by 1800 the education of the masses had made little headway. The statesmen of that time, however, saw clearly that a system of free schools was necessary. They were giving the common people the right to vote, and they understood that an ignorant voter is a dangerous person, and that where the people rule it is as necessary to have free schools as it is to have armies and navies.

At an early date, therefore, it became the policy of many States to provide for the education of children free of charge. New England had always had an excellent system of private schools, and for that reason public schools in this section were somewhat late in coming to the front. About 1837, however, Horace Mann began to draw the attention of the people of New England to the importance of education. Mann loved learning with all his heart and loved it for itself. When a boy of fifteen he had so much respect and veneration for a book that he would, he said, as soon stick a pin into his own flesh as into the pages of a book. This great educational leader went up and down in Massachusetts, and in the other States of New England, and urged the people to spend more money on their schools, to employ better-trained teachers, and to build better school-houses. Mann's efforts were for the most part successful, and by 1860 there was a well-organized system of free schools in every New England State.

The Middle and Southern States were quick to see the im-

portance of free education. In 1795 New York established by law a system of public education, and by 1800 there were in the State 1350 public schools, with an attendance of 60,000 pupils. But after 1800 the people of New York for a long time failed to give free education a hearty support, and it was not until 1849 that the present splendid free-school system of the Empire State was established. In Pennsylvania common schools were established by law in 1834. Maryland began to provide for free schools as early as 1826, but it was many years before her free-school system was fully under way. Virginia also began at an early date (1818) to provide for free education, but it was more than half a century before she had established a complete system of free schools.

In the West free education flourished from the beginning. You will remember that in the Ordinance of 1787 it was provided that in the government of the Northwest Territory education was to be encouraged. This was faithfully carried out. In the upbuilding of the West, public education was almost the first thing to receive attention. In the year 1816 the people of Indiana, in their constitution, provided that "it shall be the duty of the General Assembly, as soon as circumstances will permit, to provide by law for a general system of education, ascending in regular gradation from township schools to a State university, wherein tuition shall be gratis (free) and equally open to all." Consider what these words meant for the young people of Indiana in future years. They meant that every boy and girl in the State was to have a chance to go to college. The lawmakers of Indiana carried out the provisions of the constitution, and by 1852 the State had a complete free-school system extending from a primary school to the university. And what was done



Horace Mann.

An American educator, noted for his reforms in the Massachusetts school system. Born at Franklin, Massachusetts, in 1796; died in Ohio, in 1859.



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The University of Wisconsin in 1907.

for free education in Indiana was done practically in almost every State west of the Alleghany Mountains.

For the support of these public schools the people of the West have been helped by large gifts of the public lands. When a new State has been admitted, Congress has in most cases set aside section No. 16 in every township as belonging to the public schools.¹ Since 1848, whenever a new State has been admitted, section No. 36 also has been set aside for the public schools. The lands were given to the States for the use of the schools, and when they were sold to private purchasers the money received from them was invested, the interest being spent from year to year in supporting the schools. How much the schools of the West owe to these gifts of land will be evident from the fact that, first and last, the gifts amount to more than 67,000,000 acres—an area almost as large as New England and New York put together.

The people of the West were also given large tracts of land for the support of colleges and universities. Since 1800, every State admitted into the Union, with the exception of Maine, Texas, and West Virginia, has received at least

¹ A township in the West usually consists of a tract of land six miles square. Each square mile is a section. There are, therefore, in a township thirty-six sections. These are numbered as indicated in the accompanying figure.

1	6	4	3	2	5
7	8	9	10	11	12
13	17	16	15	14	18
19	20	21	22	23	24
25	26	27	28	29	30
31	32	33	34	35	36

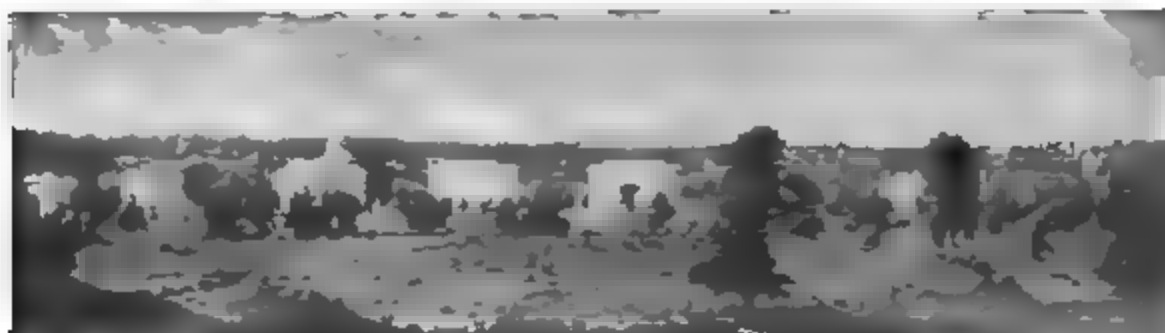


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The University of Michigan in 1907.

two townships of land for the purpose of founding a university. Michigan began to prepare for a State university as soon as she was admitted, and in 1841 the University of Michigan began its career with six students and with a faculty of two members. And so it was in nearly all the new States. Just as soon as a State was ready for a university it took steps to found one.

223. The Growth of American Literature.—In colonial times and for many years after we became a nation our forefathers had little time for reading or for writing books. They had quite enough to do to keep off the Indians, clear the forests, and bring the land under cultivation. A few books of essays and poetry and fiction were written by American authors before 1800, but they were so dull and tiresome that it has been said of them that it "takes patience to read them and patriotism to admire them."



An early picture of the University of Michigan.

As schools and colleges increased in number, however, and as readers became more numerous and better educated, the writers of books also increased in number and the quality of their books

improved. Between 1780 and 1820 there were born in America at least a dozen writers of whom any country might well be proud. These were Washington Irving, James Fenimore Cooper, William Cullen Bryant, Ralph Waldo Emerson, Na-



Ralph Waldo Emerson.

Essayist, lecturer, and poet. Author of "Nature," "Representative Men," "Conduct of Life," etc. Born at Boston, Massachusetts, in 1803; graduated at Harvard; entered the ministry; settled at Concord; died there in 1882.

thaniel Hawthorne, William Gilmore Simms, Henry Wadsworth Longfellow, John Greenleaf Whittier, Edgar Allan Poe, Oliver Wendell Holmes, Harriet Beecher Stowe, and James Russell Lowell. Books by these authors began to appear early in the nineteenth century, and by 1860 they had produced much that is best in American literature. The year 1809 saw the publication of Irving's "History of New York by Diedrich Knickerbocker," the "first book that gave solid evidence that the new Republic could produce a prose writer of distinguished charm." In 1817 Bryant sent his "Thanatopsis" to the *North Ameri-*

can Review to be published; but the editor would not at first accept it, for he did not believe so good a poem could be written by an American. The editor, however, found that Bryant really was the author of the poem, and it was published. Its beauty

A group of American prose-writers.

William Gilmore Simms.

Born at Charleston, South Carolina, in 1806; died there in 1870. He wrote many novels, largely on Southern life, and many of them of the colonial and Revolutionary periods.

Washington Irving.

Historian, essayist, and novelist. Author of "History of New York by Diedrich Knickerbocker," "The Sketch-Book," etc. Born at New York, in 1783; died at Sunnyside, near Tarrytown, New York, in 1859.

Mrs. Harriet Beecher Stowe.

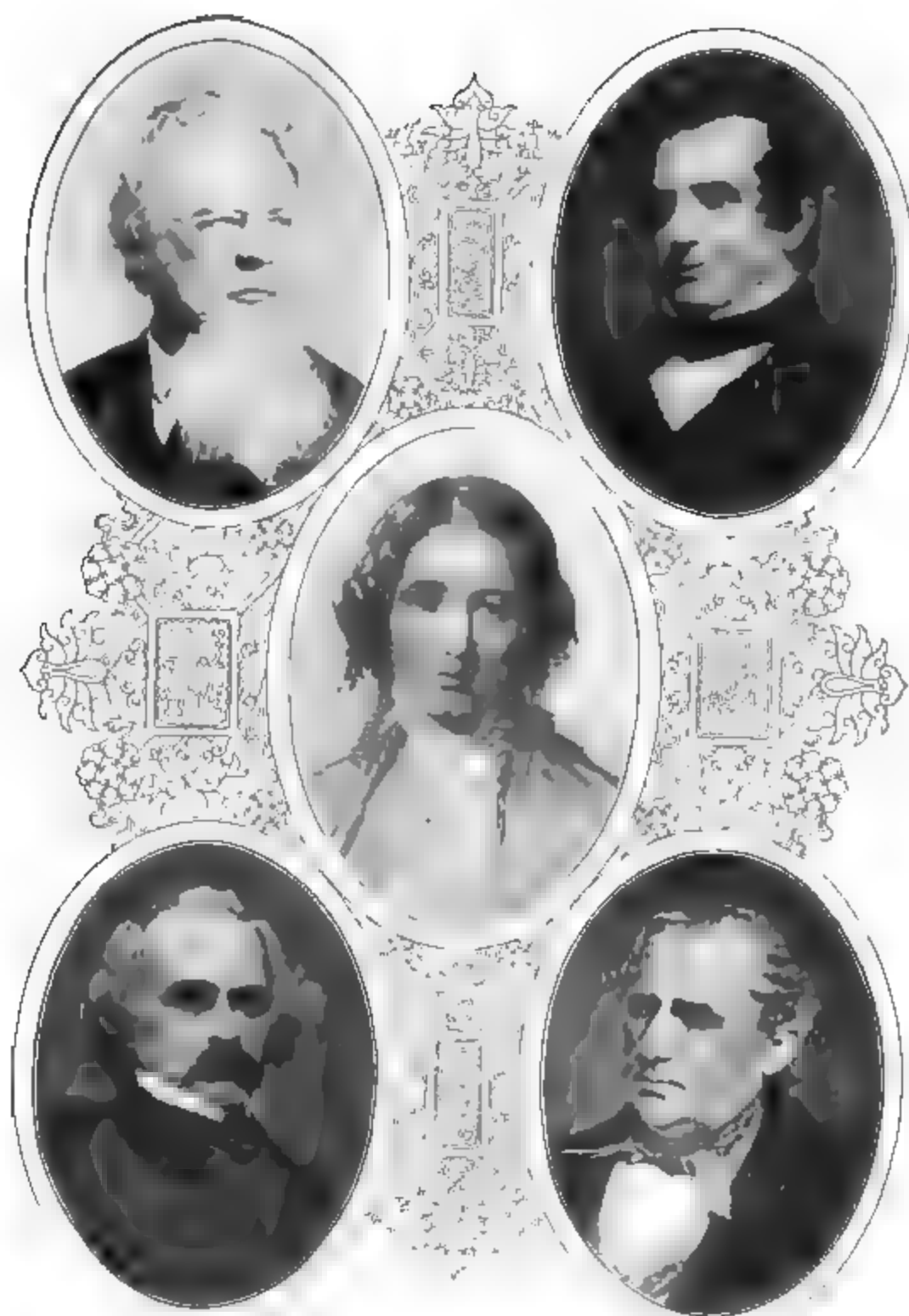
Born at Litchfield, Connecticut, in 1811; died at Hartford, in 1896. Her most famous novel, "Uncle Tom's Cabin," was first published in the *Washington National Era*, 1851-52, and in book form in 1852.

Nathaniel Hawthorne

Author of "Twice-told Tales," "The House of the Seven Gables," "Tanglewood Tales," "The Marble Faun," etc. Born at Salem, Massachusetts, in 1804; died in New Hampshire, in 1864.

James Fenimore Cooper.

Author of many novels, most of them of Indian life or American history, including "The Spy," "The Deerslayer," etc. Born at Burlington, New Jersey, in 1789; died at Cooperstown, New York, in 1851.



A group of American prose-writers.

William Gilmore Simms.

Washington Irving.

Mrs. Harriet Beecher Stowe.

Nathaniel Hawthorne.

James Fenimore Cooper.



James Russell Lowell.

Poet, essayist, and diplomatist. Author of "The Vision of Sir Launfal," "The Biglow Papers," "Among My Books," etc. Born at Cambridge, Massachusetts, in 1819; editor of the *Atlantic Monthly*, 1857-62, and of the *North American Review*, 1863-72; minister to Spain and to Great Britain; died in 1892.

and its excellence showed that America had at last produced a poet of high rank. In 1821 Cooper published his novel "The Spy," which received the highest praise abroad as well as at home. In 1828 Noah Webster published his "American Dictionary of the English Language." In 1845 Poe published "The Raven" and won for himself immortal fame. In 1852 appeared "Uncle Tom's Cabin," by Mrs. Stowe. This was a powerfully written story describing slavery. It was a book of fiction, to be sure, but it was received at the North as if it had been a book of facts. It sold by the hundreds of thousands, and it did much to stir up feelings over the slave question and to widen the gulf between the

North and the South. By 1860 Longfellow, Whittier, Holmes, and Lowell were publishing poems that gave delight to their countrymen and brought honor to American literature.

224. Civilization in 1860.—So in 1860 the people of the United States lived in a different kind of world from that in which the people of 1800 lived. By 1860 the age of steam had fully arrived, and people were accustomed to steamboats and steam-cars and all kinds of steam-driven machinery. In the

A group of American poets.

Edgar Allan Poe.

Poet and writer of tales. Author of "The Raven," "The Gold Bug," etc. Born at Boston, in 1809; died at Baltimore, in 1849.

William Cullen Bryant.

Poet and journalist. Author of "Thanatopsis," etc. Born at Cummington, Massachusetts, in 1794; died in 1878.

Henry Wadsworth Longfellow.

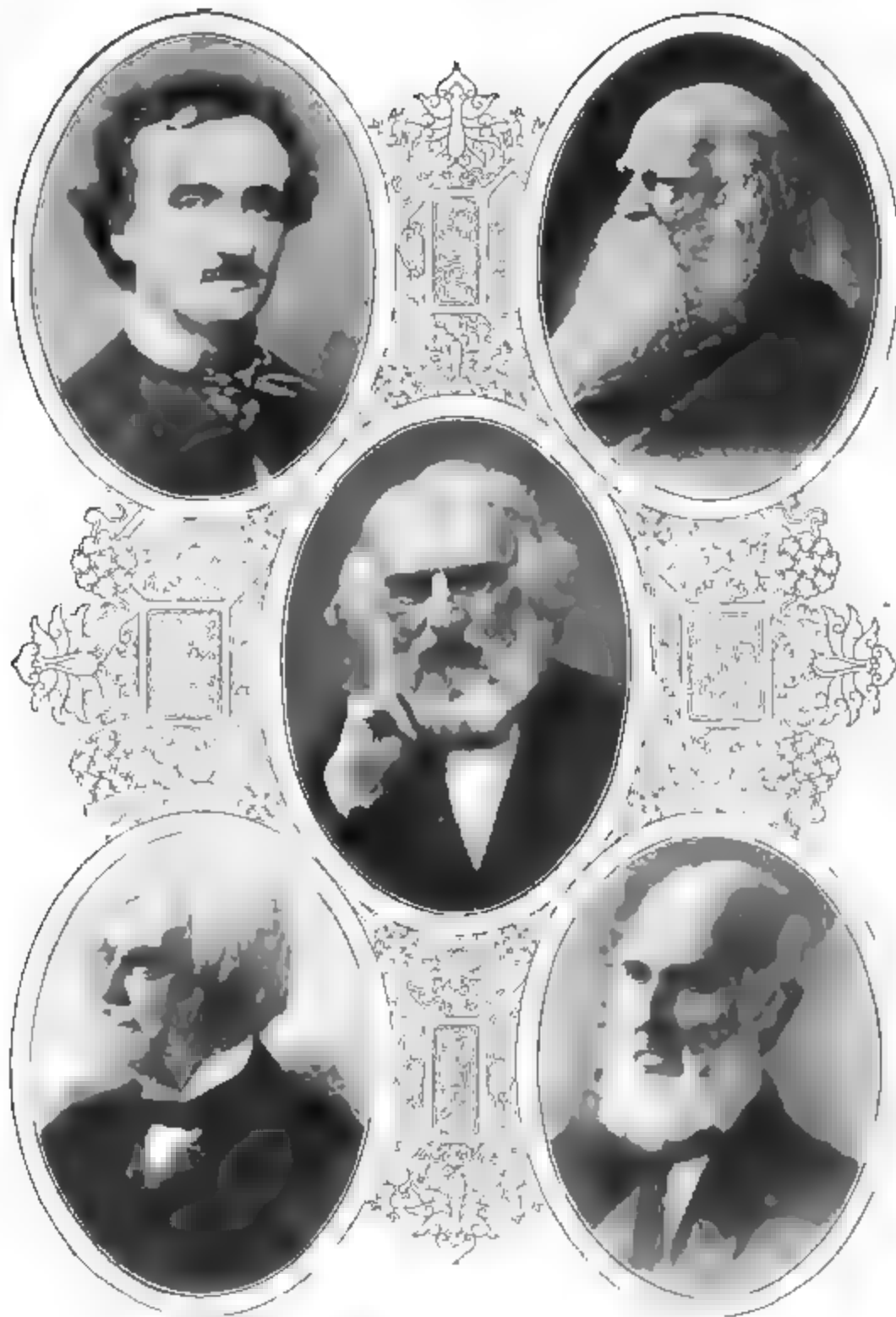
Author of "Evangeline," "A Tale of Acadie," "The Song of Hiawatha," etc. Born in Maine, in 1807; died at Cambridge, Massachusetts, in 1882.

Oliver Wendell Holmes.

Poet, essayist, and novelist. Author of "Autocrat of the Breakfast-Table," "The One-Horned Shag," etc. Born in Massachusetts, in 1809; died in 1894.

John Greenleaf Whittier.

Author of "Snow-Bound," "Poems of Nature," etc. Born at Haverhill, Massachusetts, in 1807; member of the Society of Friends; died in 1892.



A group of American poets.

Edgar Allan Poe.	William Cullen Bryant.
Henry Wadsworth Longfellow.	
Oliver Wendell Holmes.	John Greenleaf Whittier.

cities the streets were paved and were lighted by gas. In the largest places there were street-cars drawn by horses. The tele-



Noah Webster.

Born at Hartford, Connecticut, in 1758; died at New Haven, in 1843. His "American Dictionary of the English Language" was first published in 1828.

graph was coming into general use. The old common press, such as had been used by Franklin (p. 181), was being cast aside, and the revolving press of Hoe was printing newspapers so rapidly and so cheaply that the daily paper could be enjoyed by all. Express companies had been organized and were doing a thriving business. The thousands of useful inventions that were patented every year were by 1860 giving the people comforts and conveniences with which we are familiar enough to-day, but

which were unknown to our forefathers of a hundred years ago. Houses were heated by stoves and hot-air furnaces, and in cities were lighted by gas. Candles were going out of use, and oil-lamps were taking their place. The match had been invented and was being used in every household. In fact, if we could go back to the year 1860 and get a glimpse of the houses and the streets and stores and factories, things would look in many respects very much as they look to-day.

QUESTIONS ON THE TEXT

1. Why did our statesmen begin at an early date to provide for the education of the masses? Give an account of free education in New England; in the Middle States; in the Western States. Explain how education in the West has been aided by gifts of public lands.
2. What prevented the growth of literature in colonial times? Name the most celebrated American writers born between 1780 and 1820. Name a few of the famous books that appeared in America between 1800 and 1860.
3. Give a brief account of American civilization in 1860.

REVIEW AND READING REFERENCES

1. Dates: 1607, 1643, 1789, 1792, 1846, 1860.
2. Places: San Salvador, Charleston, Watauga, Vera Cruz, Harper's Ferry.
3. Persons: De Soto, Magellan, Virginia Dare, Boone, Jefferson, W. H. Harrison, Tyler, Polk, Taylor, Fillmore, Douglas, John Brown, Buchanan, Lincoln.
4. Tell what you can about: the Invincible Armada; the Puritans; the Stamp Act; the settlement of Kentucky; the settlement of Tennessee; the early history of Louisiana; the Missouri Compromise; the election of 1840; the annexation of Texas; the acquisition of Oregon; the treaty of Guadalupe; the Kansas-Nebraska Bill; the slavery struggle in Kansas; the Dred Scott decision; John Brown's Raid; the election of 1860.
5. Topics: Horace Mann: 6, 266-278. The telegraph: 17, 270-278; 8, 145-152. Matches: 17, 51-57. The printing-press: 17, 252-258.



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*Your Obedt Servt
A. Lincoln*

XXXVII

THE BEGINNINGS OF A GREAT CONFLICT

No more words;
Try it with your swords!
Try it with the arms of your bravest and your best!
You are proud of your manhood, now put it to the test.
Not another word;
Try it with the sword!

Franklin Lushington.

225. A House Divided against Itself.—The election of Lincoln did more to stir up bad feeling on the slavery question than anything that had yet happened—more than the repeal of the Missouri Compromise, more than the Dred Scott decision, more than the Brooks-Sumner affair, more than John Brown's Raid. The excitement was greatest in the South. The people of the South regarded the triumph of Lincoln as a death-blow to their power. By balancing slave States against free States (p. 224) the South for many years had been able to wield as much power as the North. But in the development of the country the scales had not been kept even. After the admission of Texas (in 1845) not a single slave State had entered the Union, whereas between 1845 and 1860 Iowa, Wisconsin, California, Minnesota, and Oregon had all come in as free States, and this admission of free States had given the North control of both houses of Congress. The power of the South had been slipping away long before 1860, and the election of Lincoln seemed to prove beyond doubt that henceforth the North would lead and that the South would be compelled to follow.

The people of the South viewed the new order of things with distrust and alarm. They felt that Lincoln and the Republicans would not treat them fairly. In the campaign the Republicans had declared against the extension of slavery, and they had come into power on that issue. Lincoln also had said that if he was

elected he would do all he could to prevent the extension of slavery. He would not, he said, disturb slavery in the States where it already existed, but it should not spread into new territory. The South felt that this was unjust. It felt that the Dred Scott decision made it certain that it was the right of a slave-owner to carry his slaves into a Territory and that there was no power anywhere that could justly deprive him of this right. So in the minds of the Southern people the election of Lincoln meant that the South was to be robbed of a right which the Constitution gave it.

Then, too, the people of the South were afraid that the election of Lincoln was the first step in a movement that would one day take their slaves away from them entirely. They believed that the Republicans had it in their minds to abolish slavery just as soon as they could do so. Lincoln, it is true, said he had no such intention and the Republican party had never declared in favor of abolition. Nevertheless Lincoln thought that slavery was wrong, and he had said that the Republic could "not endure half slave and half free." These words, the South said, could only mean that Lincoln was for a republic that was *all* free.

Moreover, with the election of Lincoln the country began to realize that slavery had become a moral question. By 1860 the people of the North were beginning to hate slavery. They thought it was wrong and even sinful to hold human beings in bondage, and for this reason many prominent men of the North had by 1860 become out-and-out abolitionists. On the other hand, the men of the South in 1860 saw no wrong whatever in slavery, and they grew very bitter indeed when they were told that slavery was a sin and that slaveholders were sinners.

So by 1860 our Union was fast becoming "a house divided against itself." In their hearts the people of the North and the people of the South no longer regarded each other with kindly feelings. Years of bickerings and strife about slavery had destroyed the feeling of brotherhood between the two sections. In the halls of Congress, as men of the North passed men of the South, they looked into each other's eyes with hatred. "So far as I know," said a Senator of the United States in 1860, "and as

I believe, every man in both houses [of Congress] is armed with a revolver and a bowie-knife."

226. Attempt at Compromise.—Of course this state of affairs could not last forever. Men could not go on looking into each other's eyes with hate without sooner or later coming to blows. One of three things had to take place: either this slavery question must be settled by compromise, as it was in 1820 and again in 1850; or the South and the North would have to separate peacefully; or the question would have to be settled on the field of battle.

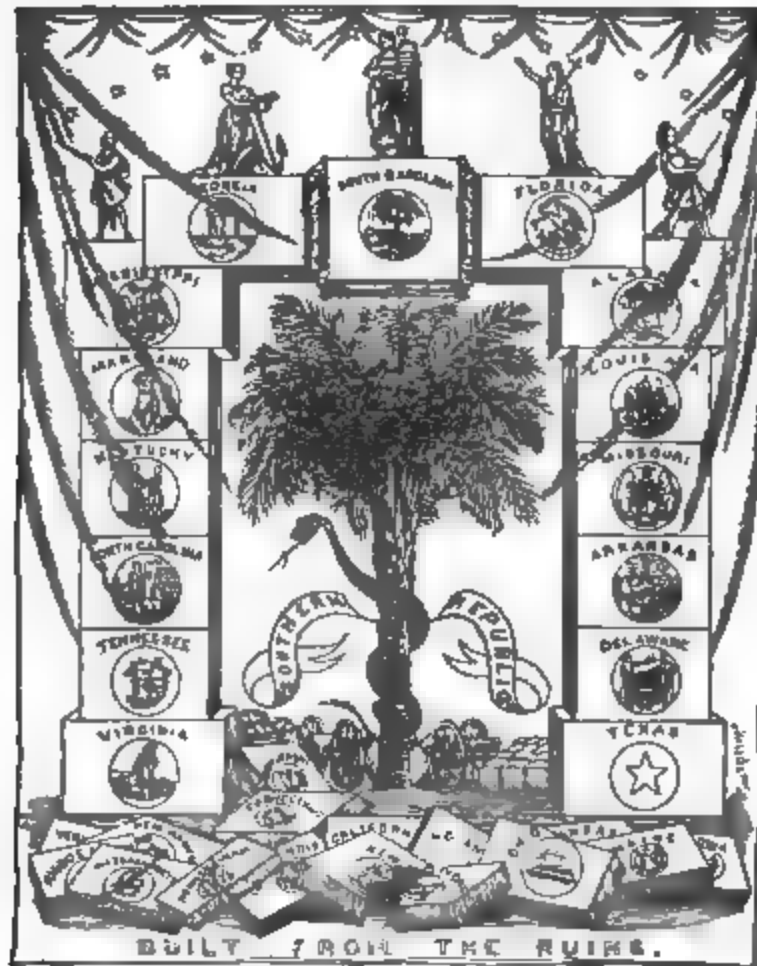
Compromise was tried first and tried sincerely. Many schemes were brought forward, the most important one being that offered (December 18, 1860) by Senator Crittenden of Kentucky. Crittenden's plan was to amend the Constitution in a way that would prohibit slavery north of parallel $36^{\circ} 30'$ and permit slavery south of that line. This was practically what was done by the Missouri Compromise. This plan, however, did not precisely suit either the South or the North, and there was on the scene no great peacemaker like Clay to carry the measure through Congress. Crittenden's plan failed, and with it perished all hope of a compromise.

227. Secession.—While Crittenden's plan of compromise was being debated in Congress, the South was planning for a separation from the Union, that is, for secession. The leading State in the secession movement was South Carolina. Even before the election of Lincoln this State began to take steps toward a withdrawal from the Union, and by December 20, 1860, a convention of delegates had declared that South Carolina was no longer one of the United States. By February 1, 1861, Mississippi, Florida, Alabama, Georgia, Louisiana, and Texas had also left the Union.

As soon as the seceding States had withdrawn from the old Union they at once took steps to form a new Union. On February 4, 1861, delegates from the seven seceding States met at Montgomery, Alabama, and drew up a constitution for the government of the new republic, which was to be known as the "Confederate States of America." In this constitution of the

Confederate States slavery was fully recognized as a lawful institution. The Confederate States chose Jefferson Davis of Mississippi as their President.

Davis had succeeded Calhoun as the leader of the South, and when his State seceded he went with it. He was a man of great



**Banner displayed at the Secession Convention
in Charleston.**

strength of character and of sincere purpose. When he withdrew from the Senate he made a speech giving his reasons for withdrawing. He said he believed the States were their own masters when they came into the Union and that they continued to be their own masters after they had entered the Union. If this was so, a State was free to remain in the Union or to withdraw from the Union. His State had decided to leave the Union, and he was going out with it, not because he loved the Union less, but because he loved Mississippi more. And the reason that led Davis to leave the Union was the reason that led

others to leave it: they left the Union because they thought their first duty was to their State.

President Buchanan did practically nothing to check the secession movement. He was now an old man, and he seemed unable to grasp affairs with a firm hand. He allowed the secessionists to go on with their plans, seizing the property and forts of the United States government and disregarding the laws of the United States. By January 1, 1861, South Carolina had taken possession of all the forts in Charleston Harbor except Fort Sumter, which was held by Major Robert Anderson of the United States army. Anderson needed supplies and more men, and the *Star of the West* was sent to his relief, bearing men and provisions. As the steamer entered the harbor with the American flag flying, she was fired upon by the secessionists and compelled to turn back. So Anderson was not relieved. Buchanan's management of affairs was so lacking in firmness that effective aid could not be given to a fort that was in need of help.



Jefferson Davis.

Born in Kentucky, in 1808; graduated at West Point. Secretary of War, 1853-57; became provisional President of the Confederacy in 1861 and President in 1862; arrested in 1865 and imprisoned; amnestied in 1868; died in 1889.

THE ADMINISTRATION OF ABRAHAM LINCOLN (1861-65)

228. Lincoln at the Helm.—But a strong man was to follow Buchanan. On March 4, 1861, Lincoln was inaugurated President. In his inaugural address he told the South precisely what

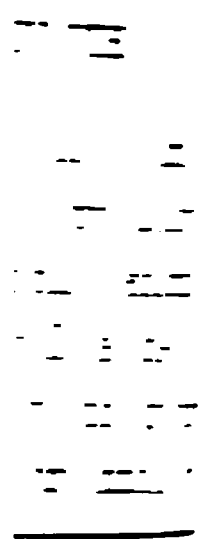
I might expect from such a "State" in such a case to get out of the Union. . . . The extent of my ability I have said that the laws of the Union be carefully executed in the States. . . . The power of the Union will be used to preserve and possess the property belonging to the government and to protect the lives and interests of the people of the



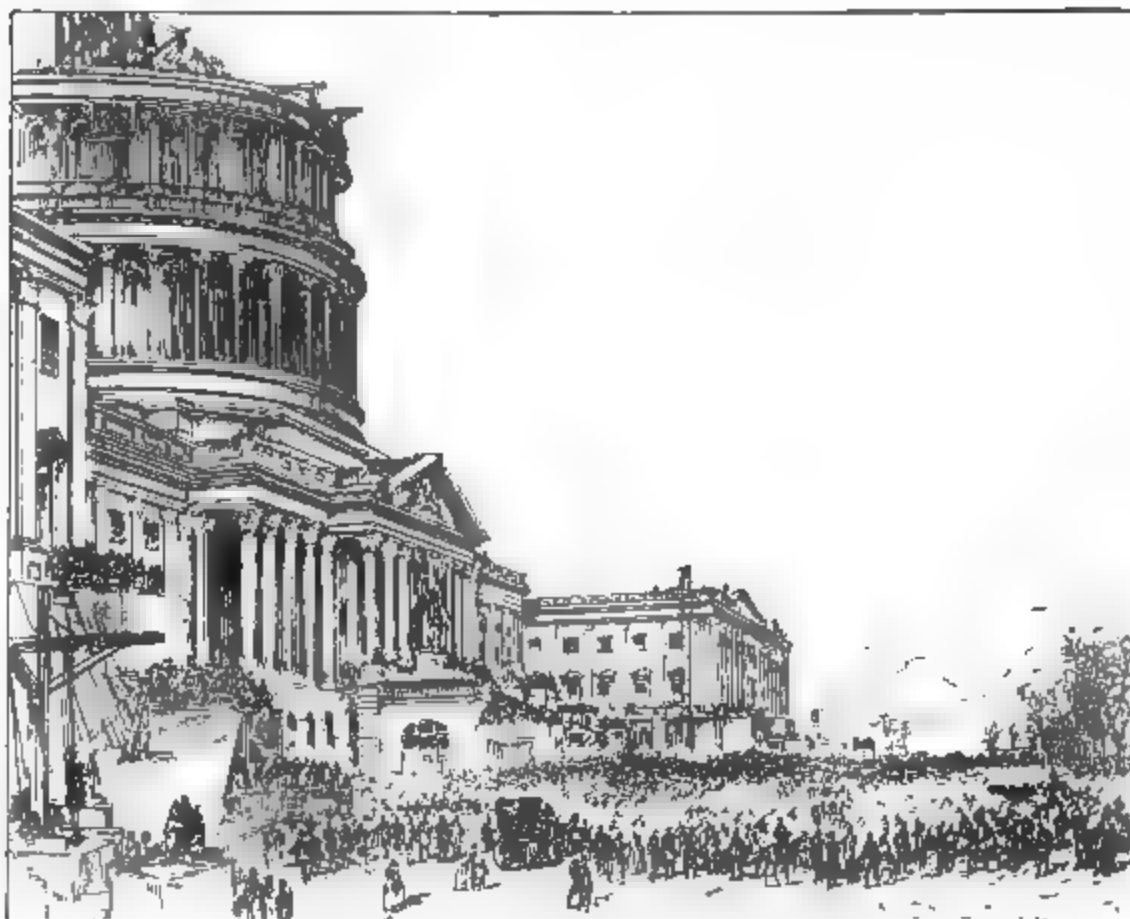
THE MEMORIAL AT LINCOLN.

of the Union. . . . The government will not allow you. You are not to be allowed to be the aggressors. We are not to be the aggressors.

There were many who said that they really meant war. If Lincoln would not allow the seceding States to remain out of the Union, if he executed the laws of the United States on the soil of the Confederate States, if he took possession of the Southern ports and collected taxes at those ports, he was going to have war. This was what the South understood by his address, and it was what the country understood by it.



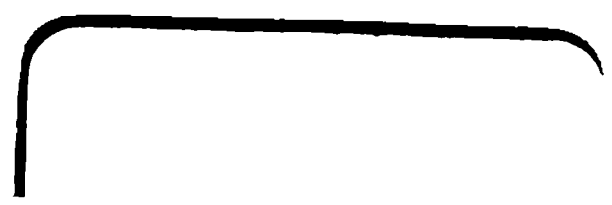
it might expect from him. "No State," he said, "can lawfully get out of the Union. . . . To the extent of my ability I shall take care that the laws of the Union be faithfully executed in all the States. . . . The power confided in me will be used to hold, occupy, and possess the property belonging to the government, and to collect duties and imposts. . . . In your hands, my dis-

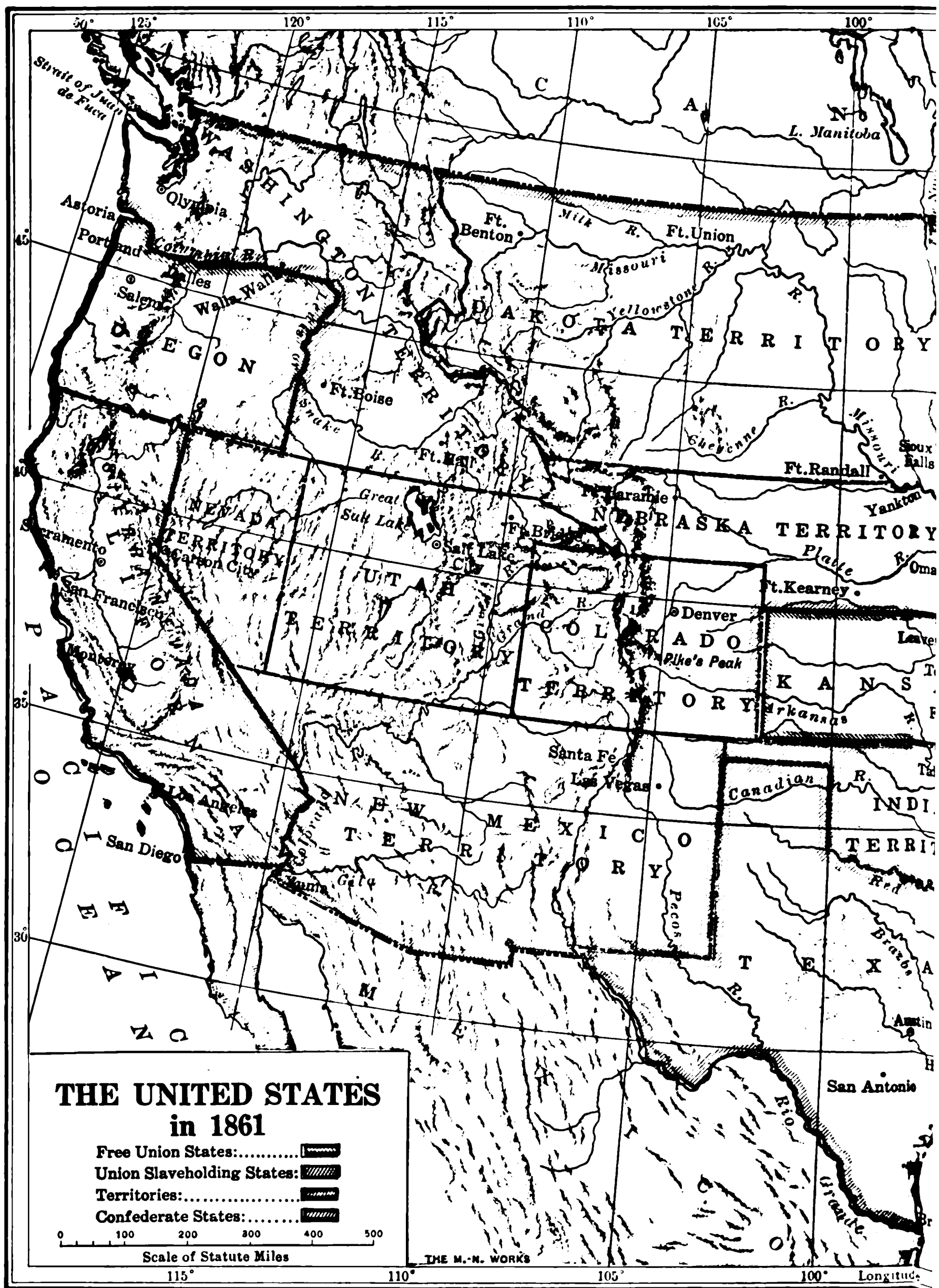


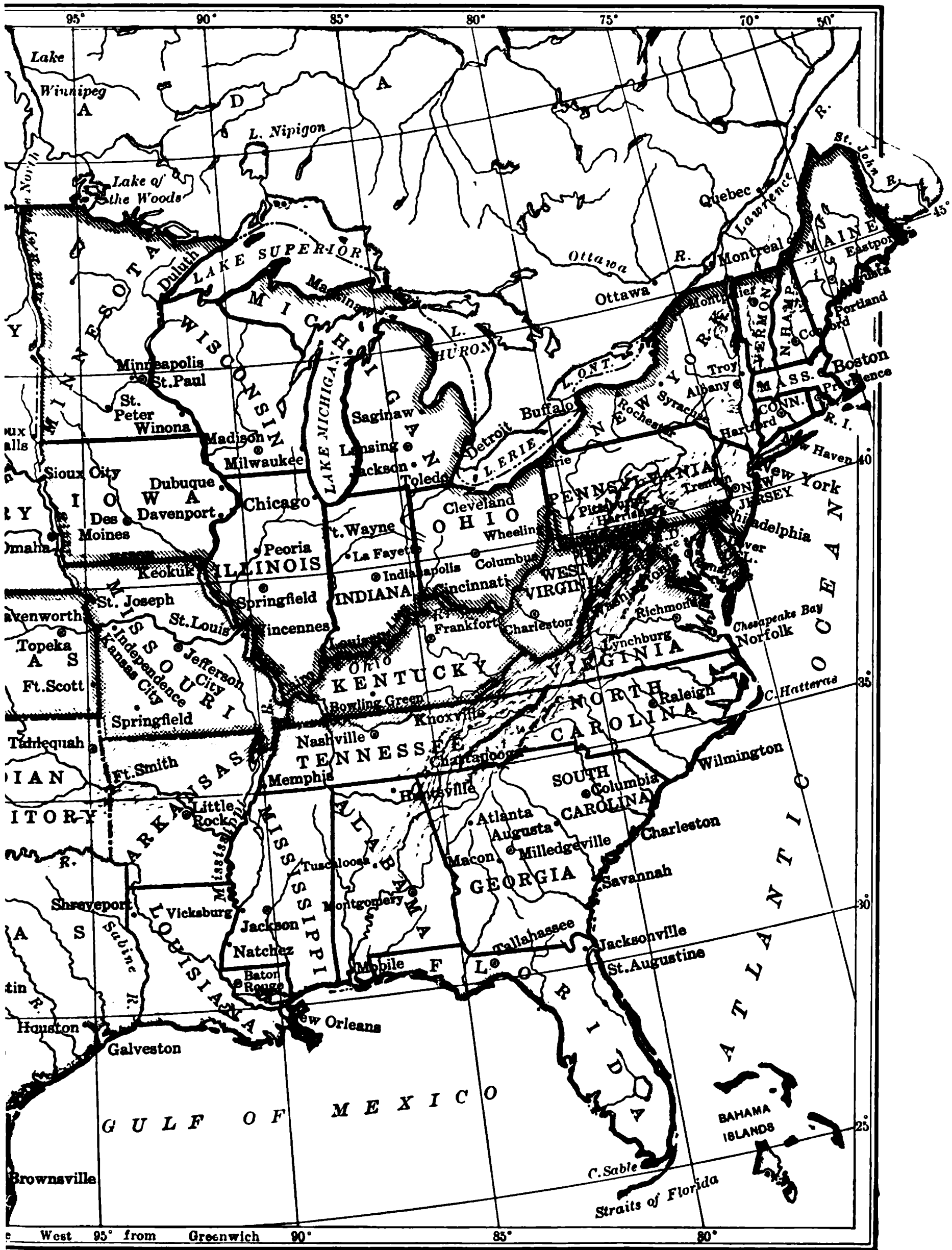
The inauguration of Lincoln.

satisfied fellow-countrymen, and not in mine, is the momentous issue of civil war. The government will not assail you. You can have no conflict without being yourselves the aggressors. We are not enemies, but friends."

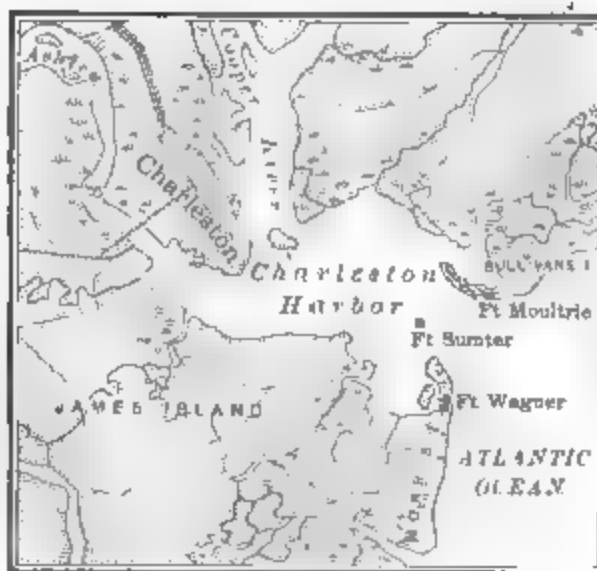
These were mild words indeed, but they really meant war. If Lincoln would not allow the seceding States to remain out of the Union, if he executed the laws of the United States on the soil of the Confederate States, if he took possession of the Southern ports and collected taxes at those ports, he was going to have war. This was what the South understood by his address, and it was what the country understood by it.







229. The Firing upon Fort Sumter.—Fort Sumter was in need of men and supplies, and the President determined that it should be relieved. But he was not heartily supported by the men around him. His cabinet thought it wiser to abandon Fort Sumter. William H. Seward, his Secretary of State, thought it would provoke war to send supplies to the fort, and he was against doing anything that might bring on war. Even General Scott, the commanding general of the army, was opposed to anything like harsh measures. "Say to the seceded States," he said, "'Wayward sisters, depart in peace.'" Lincoln, however, did not listen to these advisers. He commanded (April 6) the army and navy to join forces and relieve Fort Sumter with men and provisions.



Charleston harbor.

When the government of the Confederate States heard of Lincoln's action, Davis and his cabinet decided at once to de-

mand the surrender of the fort and to fire upon it if it refused to surrender. In discussing the matter, Robert Toombs, one of the members of the cabinet, said: "The firing upon that fort will



Fort Johnson. Iron clad battery, Cummings Point. Fort Sumter. Fort Moultrie.

The first gun of the Civil War.

Fired from a ten-inch mortar-gun from Fort Johnson at 4.30 A.M., April 12, 1861. The shell burst over Fort Sumter, which is just at the right of the center of the picture.

mand the surrender of the fort and to fire upon it if it refused to surrender. In discussing the matter, Robert Toombs, one of the members of the cabinet, said: "The firing upon that fort will

inaugurate a civil war greater than any the world has yet seen. . . . You will wantonly strike a hornets' nest which extends from mountain to ocean, and legions now quiet will swarm out



The Seventh Regiment leaving New York for the front.

and sting us to death." General Beauregard, an officer of the national army who had joined the Confederates, demanded of Major Anderson the surrender of the fort, and, when this was refused, firing upon Fort Sumter began (April 12, 1861). The fort had but sixty-four men and but little ammunition. Anderson made a brave defense, but he was compelled to surrender. He was permitted to march out of the fort (April 14) with "colors flying and drums beating and saluting the flag with fifty guns." Although there had been heavy firing, no life was lost on either side.

The firing upon Fort Sumter was the beginning of the Civil War. Lincoln at once began to prepare for a bloody conflict. The regular army was very weak, so he called for volunteer soldiers. He asked for 75,000 men and 300,000 responded. The attack upon Fort Sumter had aroused the whole country to a sense of duty. Every man had to decide whether he was for a

Union consisting of all the States, the Union which Lincoln was trying to uphold, or whether he was for secession. At the North the people, Democrats and Republicans alike, decided for the Union; at the South the people, in most of the States, were on the side of secession. Every State also had to decide whether it was for Union or for disunion. Of course no free State was for secession. But there were fifteen slave States, and only seven had seceded. What would the other eight do? They gave their answer quickly after the firing on Sumter. Four (Delaware, Maryland, Kentucky, and Missouri) remained in the Union, and four (Virginia, North Carolina, Tennessee, and Arkansas) seceded and joined the Confederate States.

QUESTIONS ON THE TEXT

1. Why did the election of Lincoln cause so much excitement in the South? Why did the South fear it would lose its slaves? Why could it be truly said that by 1860 our Union was a house divided against itself?
2. Give an account of Crittenden's compromise.
3. What States were the first to secede? Give an account of the government of the Confederate States. What reason did Davis give for seceding? How did Buchanan meet the secession movement?
4. What did Lincoln tell the seceding States they might expect of him?
5. What was the attitude of Lincoln's advisers toward secession? Give an account of the attack upon Fort Sumter. What effect upon the country did this attack have?

REVIEW AND READING REFERENCES

1. Dates: 1664, 1682 (2), 1803 (2), 1821, 1837, 1860.
2. Places: Genoa, New Amsterdam, Fort Duquesne, Detroit, Harper's Ferry.
3. Persons: Roger Williams, Penn, Cornwallis, Lafayette, Whitney, Monroe, J. Q. Adams, Cass, Douglas, John Brown, Buchanan, Lincoln, Morse.
4. Tell what you can about: the First Continental Congress; the Declaration of Independence; the Frontier Line in 1800; Whitney's cotton-gin; the Missouri Compromise; the Monroe Doctrine; the settlement of

Michigan; the settlement of Iowa; the Kansas-Nebraska Bill; the Dred Scott decision; John Brown's Raid; the election of 1860; the invention of the telegraph; the invention of the sewing-machine.

5. Topics: The presidential election of 1860: 15 (Vol. II), 1-24. Abraham Lincoln: 6, 239-255; also 8, 260-270. The new President: 30, 120-142. Events leading to the Civil War: 15 (Vol. II), 76-94. The attack on Fort Sumter: 3, 299-302; also 11, 232-272. Our country's call: 14, 410. Dixie: 14, 411.

XXXVIII

THE CIVIL WAR: THE FIRST CLASHES

It is plain the war [the Civil War] enlisted the patriotic feelings, properly so called, of both the contending parties.—*J. C. Ropes.*



A Confederate drummer.

From a regiment called the "Louisiana Tigers."

230. The Strength of the North and the South Compared.—At the outbreak of the Civil War what was the strength of the North when compared with the strength of the South? In what respect was the outlook favorable to one section and unfavorable to the other?

In many respects the North was the stronger of the contending sections. On the side of the Union there were twenty-two States, while the Confederate States numbered only eleven. The population of the States remaining in the Union was twenty-two millions; the population of the seceded States was five and a half millions of whites and three and a half millions of blacks. The white population of the North, therefore, was about four times that of the South. In wealth and material resources the North was also far ahead of the South. The North had shops to supply its armies with the weapons of war; it had factories to make clothing for its soldiers; and it had farms to supply them with food. The South had little beside its farms. Another great advantage of the North was its control of the sea. The navy, for the most part, remained true to the Union, and nearly all the vessels of the American merchant marine—and it was very large in 1861—were owned in the North and were at the service of the Union.

In one important respect, however, the outlook was favorable

to the South. The task of the South was much lighter than the task laid out for itself by the North. The South had only to defend itself against attack and invasion; it desired only to be let alone. It was not compelled to go forth and conquer. It could win without conquering a single foot of territory; all it had to do was to hold its ground. But the North was compelled to conquer and crush, piece by piece, a country nearly five times as large as France. This was indeed a mighty undertaking, but it was a thing the North must do, or else victory would be with the South.

231. The First Clashes.—The first clashes of the Civil War occurred, naturally, in the border States, in Maryland, Virginia, Kentucky, and Missouri. The first blood was shed in the city of Baltimore. On April 19, five days after the surrender of



A soldier of the Sixth Massachusetts Regiment.

Fort Sumter, the Sixth Massachusetts Regiment, while marching through the streets of Baltimore on its way to Washington, was attacked by a crowd of secessionists. There was shooting on both sides, and several soldiers and a number of citizens were killed. The regiment fought its way to the railroad station and within a few hours reached Washington, where it was anxiously awaited by Lincoln, who was afraid Southern troops might at any moment attack the capital.

The first clash in the West occurred in Missouri. There were many secessionists in Missouri, and it was for a while doubtful whether the State would join the Confederacy or remain in the Union. The governor was a strong secessionist, and he tried to take his State over to the Confederates. But he was prevented from doing this by Nathaniel Lyon, who, with a small army of Union soldiers, captured the principal strongholds of the State and drove the governor from the seat of power. Thus by prompt action of Lyon the State was saved to the Union, and "gallant Missouri" had a death-roll in the Union army as great as the death-roll of Massachusetts.

Another of the early clashes of the war occurred in the western part of Virginia. The interests of western Virginia lay with the North rather than with the South. Less than four per cent. of the population were slaves. Its sons attended schools in free States. The natural flow of its rivers caused it to seek a market for its products in Pittsburgh and in the towns of the Mississippi valley.¹ It happened, therefore, that while the eastern part of Virginia was strongly in favor of secession, the western part was loyal to the Union. So when Virginia seceded from the Union (April 17, 1861) the people over the mountains refused to go out with her. They took steps at once to secede from eastern Virginia and form a government of their own. In order to check this movement Confederate troops were sent into western Virginia. On June 3 the Confederates were attacked at Philippi by a Union force under General George B. McClellan and were defeated. The people of western Virginia now carried forward their plan of separation. On June 11, 1861, delegates from forty western counties met at Wheeling and organized a new State, which in 1863 was admitted as the State of West Virginia. Thus one of the first results of secession was to give a new State to the Union.

232. The Battle of Manassas or Bull Run.—The first important battle of the war was fought near Manassas, about thirty miles southwest of Washington. Lincoln's call for troops quickly brought a large army to Washington and to eastern Virginia, and it was not long before the people of the North began to demand that the army move forward and capture Richmond, which, as soon as Virginia seceded, was chosen as the new capital of the Confederacy. "On to Richmond! On to Richmond!" was the cry of the North. So it was determined to move upon Richmond. On July 16 the Union general McDowell marched out of Washington with about 30,000 men to give battle to the Confederate general Beauregard, who was stationed near Manassas, along the stream of Bull Run, with about 22,000 men.

¹ See J. M. Callahan's "Evolution of the Constitution of West Virginia," p. 14.

Some of McDowell's men were regular, well-trained soldiers, while others were raw and undisciplined. Because of a lack of discipline his army could move only about six miles a day. On July 21 the two armies met in battle and the Union army was disastrously defeated. The retreat did not stop until many of the soldiers were within the fortifications at Washington.

233. McClellan Organizes the Army of the Potomac.—When the Northern people heard of the defeat of their army at Manas-



George B. McClellan.

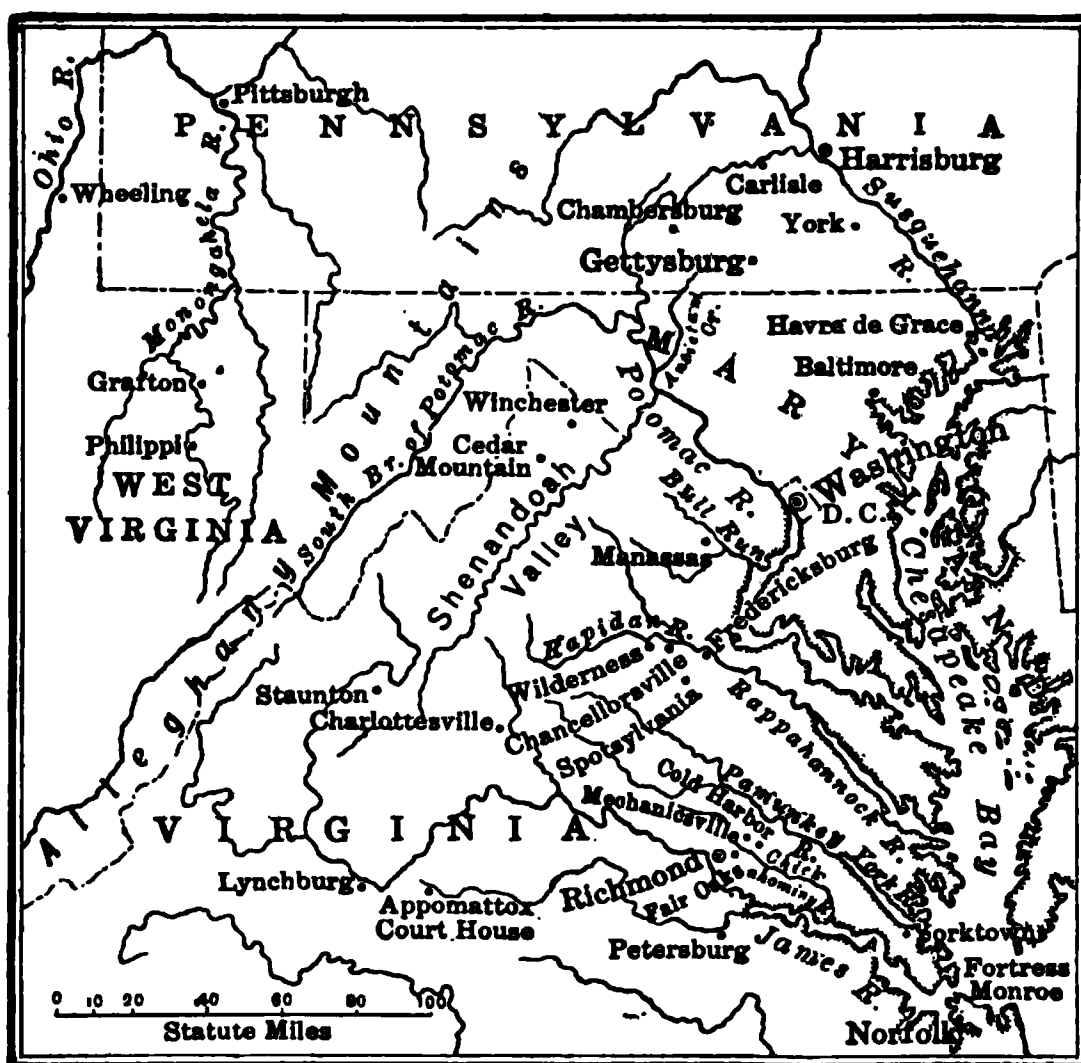
Born at Philadelphia, in 1826, died in New Jersey, in 1885.

sas, they hung their heads in shame, for they felt that the Union soldiers had acted like cowards. But the defeat was not due to cowardice, but to a lack of training and to the bad organization of the army. Lincoln saw this clearly, and at once set about making changes in the military organization. On the very day after the rout at Bull Run he summoned General McClellan from West Virginia and made him commander of all the forces in and around Washington.

McClellan found the army in a disordered, disorganized condition. Raw regiments were constantly flocking into Washington, but little was done in the way of training the men for duty. Officers spent their time in lounging around the city. Shortly before McClellan arrived at Washington it was said that a boy threw a stone at a dog on Pennsylvania Avenue and hit three brigadier-generals. After the "little Napoleon"—as McClellan was called—appeared upon the scene, generals and other officers were not so numerous on the streets, for the new commander kept them busy drilling their regiments and preparing their men for actual warfare. As a result of his industry and skill, McClellan by the last of October had a well-drilled, well-organized, and well-equipped army of 150,000 men—the Army of the Potomac. As a reward for his services Lincoln

made (November 1, 1861) McClellan the commander of all the armies of the United States.

What was to be done with the magnificent army which McClellan had organized? The people of the North thought it ought to be led promptly against the enemy, and the cry, "On to Richmond! On to Richmond!" was again heard. But McClellan was slow to move. He was a superb drill-master and organ-

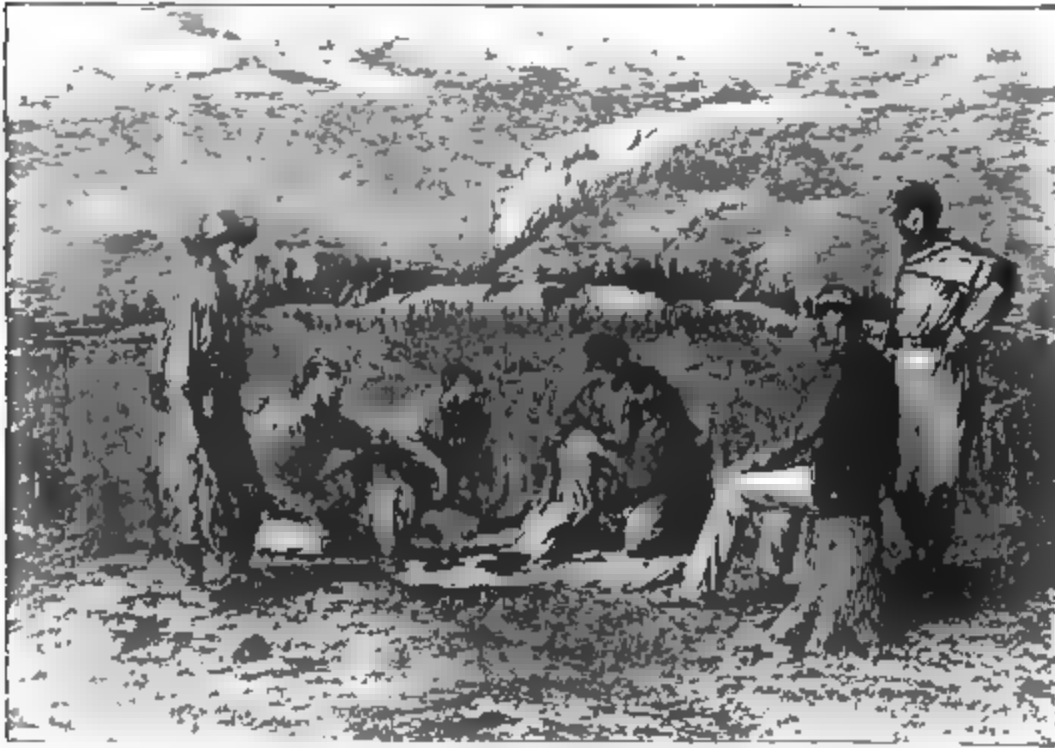


The war in the East.

izer, but he was not a bold fighter. He thought too much about saving his men from defeat and too little about leading them on to victory. So he held his fine army in check. Summer passed, fall passed, the year (1861) passed, and still he made no advance upon Richmond.

234. The Blockade.—As soon as Lincoln saw there was going to be war, he declared (April 19, 1861) the coast from Virginia to Texas to be in a state of blockade; he ordered that no ships from any country should be allowed to go into or out of the seaports of the South. In order to make the blockade effective, he stationed war-vessels along the coast, and if any ship at-

tempted to enter a port or sail out from a port it was captured. The purpose of the blockade was to prevent the South from selling her cotton and tobacco to England and other countries and receiving in exchange guns, ammunition, and other military supplies. The blockade was a heavy blow to the Confederacy,



Union and Confederate soldiers trading between the lines in a truck.

for the South had no great gun-factories, and she was compelled to go outside for most of the things needed in carrying on the war.

235. The Capture of Mason and Slidell.—On November 8, 1861, the *San Jacinto*, an American man-of-war, overhauled in the Bermuda Channel the British mail steamship *Trent* and took from her by force James Mason and John Slidell, who had been commissioned by the Confederate government to represent its interests in England and France. This act was contrary to the law of nations, and England demanded that Mason and Slidell be given up. Our government yielded, and the prisoners were placed on board an English vessel and taken to England.

It was extremely fortunate for the United States that the *Trent* affair was settled in a peaceful manner. If our govern-



A volunteer of the
Fourteenth New
York Regiment.

ment had insisted on retaining the commissioners, England might have recognized the independence of the Confederacy. If she had done this she would doubtless have broken the blockade and renewed her trade with the South, for she sadly needed that trade. Her mills were idle and her workmen were suffering because she could not get cotton from the



A Confederate foot-
"cavalryman."

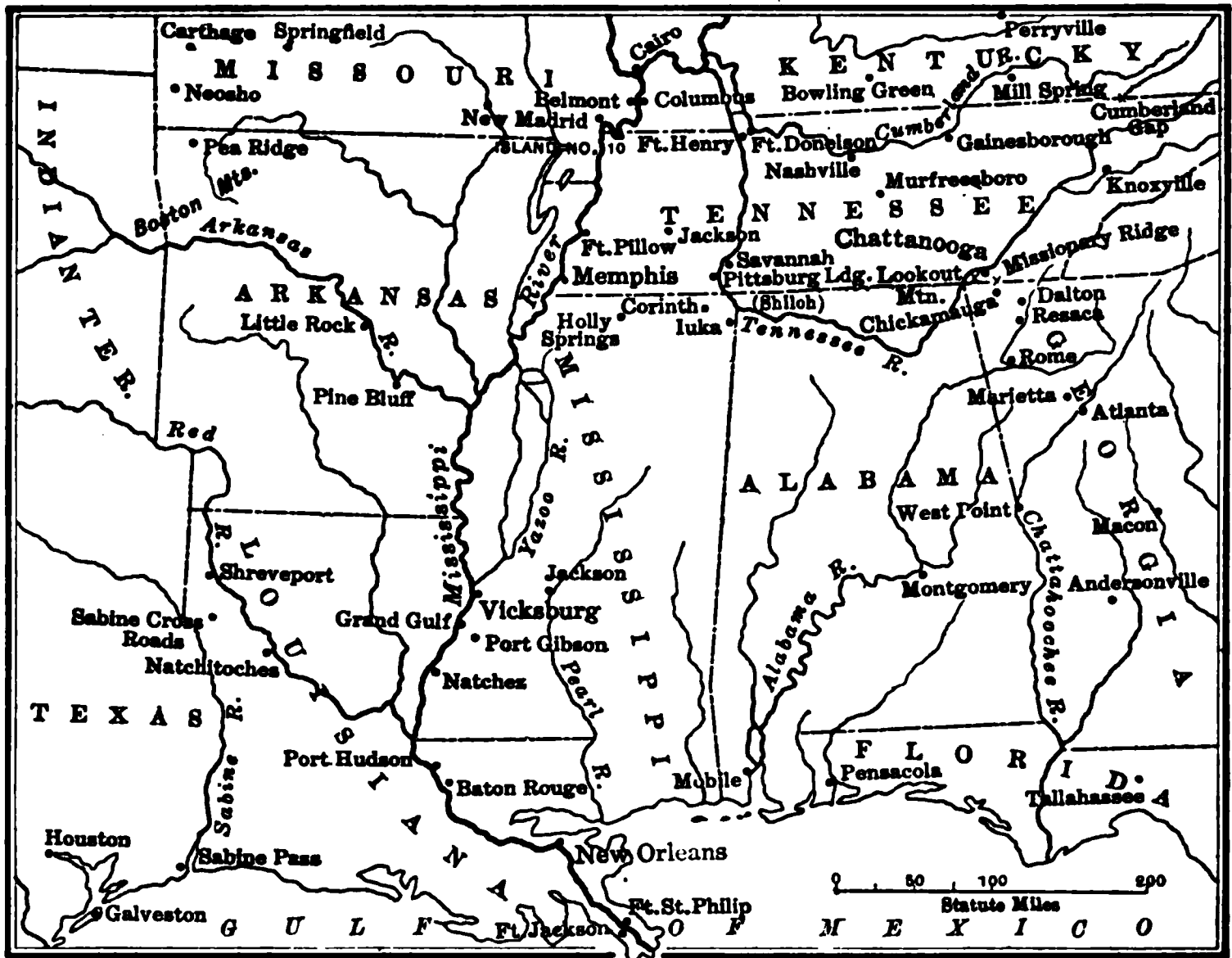
South. But, friendly as England was to the South and great as her interests were in that direction, she nevertheless refused to recognize the independence of the Confederate States.

QUESTIONS ON THE TEXT

1. At the outbreak of the war what was the strength of the North when compared with the strength of the South? In what respects was the outlook favorable to the South?
2. When and where was the first shedding of blood in the Civil War? How was Missouri saved to the Union? What led to the formation of the State of West Virginia?
3. Give an account of the battle of Manassas.
4. Give an account of McClellan's organization of the Army of the Potomac. Compare McClellan's skill as an organizer with his qualities as a fighter.
5. Describe the blockade. What was its purpose?
6. Give an account of the Mason and Slidell affair. Why was it important that the United States should have the friendship of England during the war?

REVIEW AND READING REFERENCES

1. Dates: 1689 (2), 1733, 1776, 1803 (2), 1832, 1850, 1861.
2. Places: Providence, Saratoga, New Orleans (2), Charleston.
3. Persons: Calvert, Drake, Hudson, Burgoyne, Burr, Calhoun, Clay, Webster, Morse, Davis.
4. Tell what you can about: the first written constitution; Burgoyne's



The war in the West.

surrender; the spoils system; nullification; the discovery of gold in California; the settlement of Oregon; the invention of the telegraph; the invention of the sewing-machine; the secession of the Confederate States; the firing upon Fort Sumter.

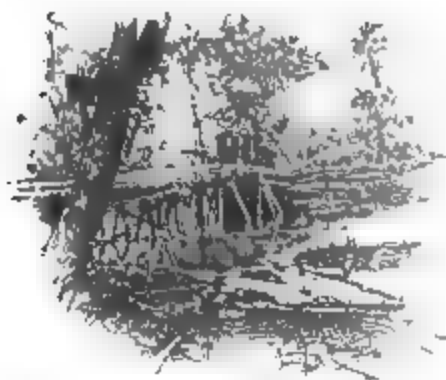
5. Topics: Battle of Bull Run: 3, 305-308. The Southern soldier: 3, 308-311. Leaders in Congress during the war: 15 (Vol. II), 47-75. William H. Seward, 8, 270-277. Lincoln and the war: 30, 143-163.

XXXIX

THE CIVIL WAR: FROM FORT DONELSON TO CHANCELLORSVILLE

My paramount object in this struggle is to save the Union. If I could save the Union without freeing any slaves, I would do it; and if I could save it by freeing all the slaves, I would do it.

Abraham Lincoln.



Bridge across the Chicka-
hominy.

236. The Plan of Campaign of the Union Forces.—For several months after the outbreak of the war the Union forces followed no definite plan of campaign. By the close of 1861, however, it was clear to the minds of Lincoln and his advisers that the Union forces must do three things: first, they must capture Richmond; second, they must gain full

possession of the Mississippi River and thus cut the Confederacy into two parts; third, they must make the blockade effective and not let the South get any supplies from abroad. This meant war in Virginia and the neighboring States, war in the West, and war along the coast and on the ocean. To carry forward its plans the national government by the beginning of 1862 had at its command an army of 500,000 men. The Confederates had about 350,000 men.

THE WAR IN THE WEST, 1862

237. Fort Donelson and Fort Henry.—The first fighting in 1862 was in the West, where the Confederates held a series of fortified posts at Columbus—in Kentucky—Fort Henry, Fort Donelson, Bowling Green, and Cumberland Gap (map, p. 332). Of these strongholds Fort Henry, on the Tennessee River,



The gunboats at Fort Donelson.

and Fort Donelson, on the Cumberland River, were the most important, for they guarded waterways which led far into the center of the Confederacy. It was decided, therefore, by the Union generals to secure the possession of these two forts as speedily as possible. In February Commodore Foote, with a flotilla of gunboats, made his way to Fort Henry and captured it. The Confederate soldiers in the fort, however, escaped to Fort Donelson, twelve miles away. Foote now returned with his gunboats to the Ohio and ascended the Cumberland to attack Fort Donelson by water, while General U. S. Grant was to attack it by land. The gunboats were driven back, but Grant, with an army of 30,000 men, pressed hard upon the fort, and after three days of fierce fighting compelled it to surrender (February 16), capturing about 15,000 Confederate soldiers. Thus General Grant won the first important Union victory of the war.

The capture of Fort Donelson was an event of the greatest importance. It brought the whole of Kentucky and a large part of Tennessee under the control of the Union forces, and it opened a road into the heart of the Confederacy. It inspired the North with confidence and hope, for it showed that Western men could fight as bravely as Southern men. It also had the effect of bringing General Grant to the front. Before the Civil War little was known of this great military hero. Grant was

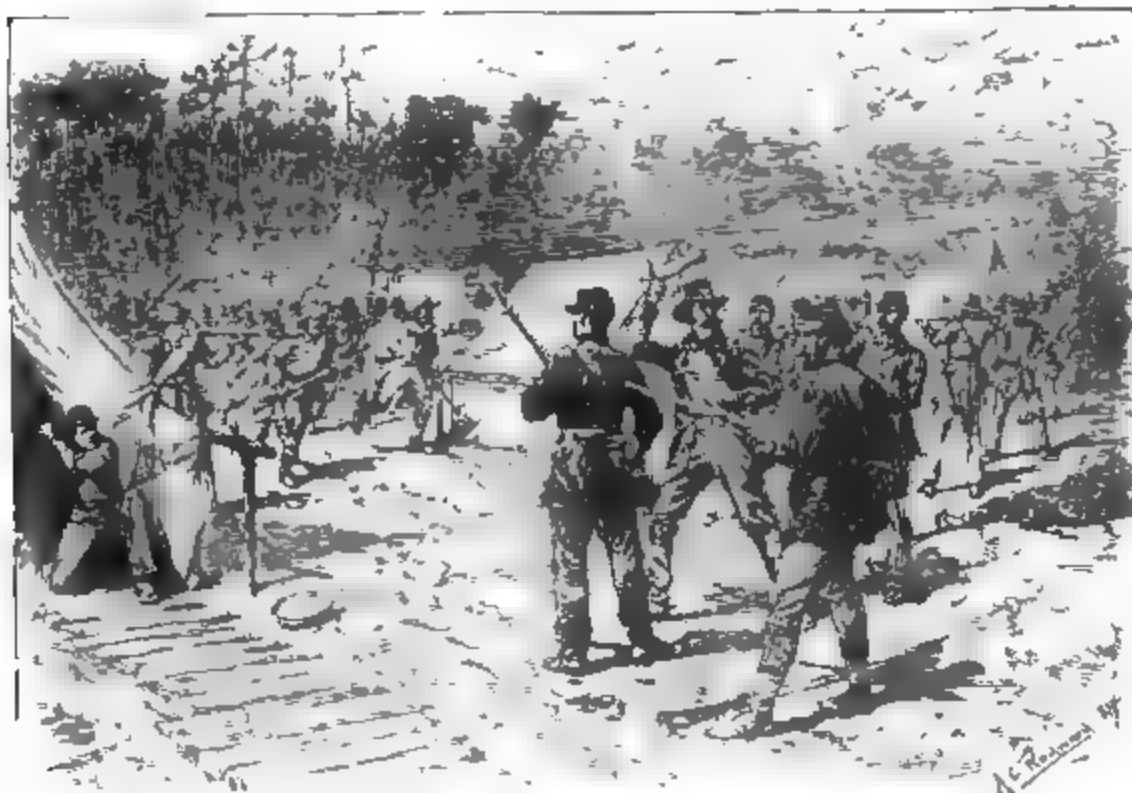
trained for war in the Military Academy at West Point, where he was graduated in 1843, standing twenty-first in a class of thirty-nine. He served as a lieutenant in the Mexican War and won some distinction for his bravery. In 1854 he resigned from the army and settled near St. Louis, where he tried to make a living by farming, but failed. In 1860 he moved with his family to Salem, Illinois, and took a position in his brother's store at a salary of \$800 a year. Grant was now thirty-eight years of age. He had accomplished but little in his life, and he seemed to be without ambition. His nature seemed asleep. If he had died in 1860 he would have filled an obscure grave. But at the outbreak of the Civil War he awoke to new life, and his great strength and power as a man began to appear. He went into the war believing that the North was right and that the Union ought to be saved. He began as a captain, but was quickly made a general. After the success at Fort Donelson he became a central figure of the war. In stature he was short and he was slightly built. In his bearing and in his dealings with men he was simple, honest, and unpretending. If he was ever troubled by fear, nobody detected it, for he would watch the progress of a bloody battle as quietly and as calmly as an ordinary man would watch a game of chess. His perseverance in battle was perhaps greater than that of any other general that ever lived. Whether fortune was on his side or against him made little difference; he fought on and on until the enemy was crushed and victory was complete.



General Grant.

238. The Battle of Shiloh.—After the fall of Fort Donelson the Confederate troops in the West were compelled, of course,

to move their line of defense farther south. Their rallying-point was now at Corinth (map, p. 332), a great railroad center in northern Mississippi. Here there was collected a large army



The early morning charge of the Confederates at Shiloh.

under the command of Albert Sidney Johnston, one of the ablest of the Southern generals. The Union army after its success at Donelson was led by Grant up the Tennessee to Pittsburg Landing (map, p. 332), near Shiloh Church. Here Grant was to be joined by General Buell. But before Buell arrived Johnston suddenly attacked (April 6) the Union army and on the first day of the battle drove Grant from his position. On the morning of the 7th, however, Buell arrived with fresh troops and saved the Union army from defeat. The battle of Shiloh was hard fought on both sides. The Confederates lost Johnston, whose nobleness of soul shone to the last moment of his life. While he was lying on the field suffering, he sent his surgeon to attend to the wounds of a Union soldier not far away, and while the surgeon was giving relief to an enemy, the brave general bled to death. After Johnston's death Beauregard took command of the Confederate forces and led them

back to Corinth. But they were not permitted to remain there, for General Halleck, the commander of all the armies of the West, followed them with a large force and compelled them to move (May 30) farther south.

239. Opening the Mississippi.—At the beginning of 1862 the Confederates controlled the Mississippi from Columbus, in Kentucky, to the mouth of the river. After the fall of Donelson, however, Columbus was abandoned, and the Confederates moved down to Island Number 10. Here, while the battle of Shiloh was raging (April 7), they were attacked by Foote with gunboats and by Pope with a land force, and were driven from their position. Two months later Fort Pillow and Memphis were abandoned by the Confederates. The Mississippi was now controlled by the Union forces as far south as Vicksburg (map, p. 332).

While the Upper Mississippi was being opened by Foote, the Lower Mississippi was being opened by Admiral Farragut, who in April entered the mouth of the river with a great fleet, his



Farragut's fleet passing the forts below New Orleans.

purpose being to capture New Orleans, the largest city of the Confederacy. Fort Jackson and Fort St. Philip guarded the river on the west and east (map, p. 332). Across the river be-

tween the forts were stretched enormous chains to prevent the passing of the enemy's vessels. Above the forts was a flotilla of Confederate gunboats. In spite of forts and chains and gunboats, Farragut forced his way up the river to New Orleans and captured it (April 25). He then went up the river and captured Baton Rouge (map, p. 332). The Union forces now had full control of the Mississippi, excepting the stretch between Vicksburg and Port Hudson.

240. Bragg's Raid into Kentucky; Murfreesboro.—After the battle of Shiloh it was several months before there was any more desperate fighting in the West between the land forces. In the fall the Confederate general Bragg passed the Union lines and made a raid into Kentucky. He was moving rapidly northward when he was met by Buell near Perryville (October 8) and driven back into Tennessee. On the last day of the year, Bragg, while in winter quarters at Murfreesboro (map, p. 332), was attacked by the Union general Rosecrans. After one of the most bloody battles of the war the Confederate troops withdrew from the field, although it would hardly be correct to say that they were defeated.

THE WAR IN THE EAST, MARCH, 1862-MAY, 1863

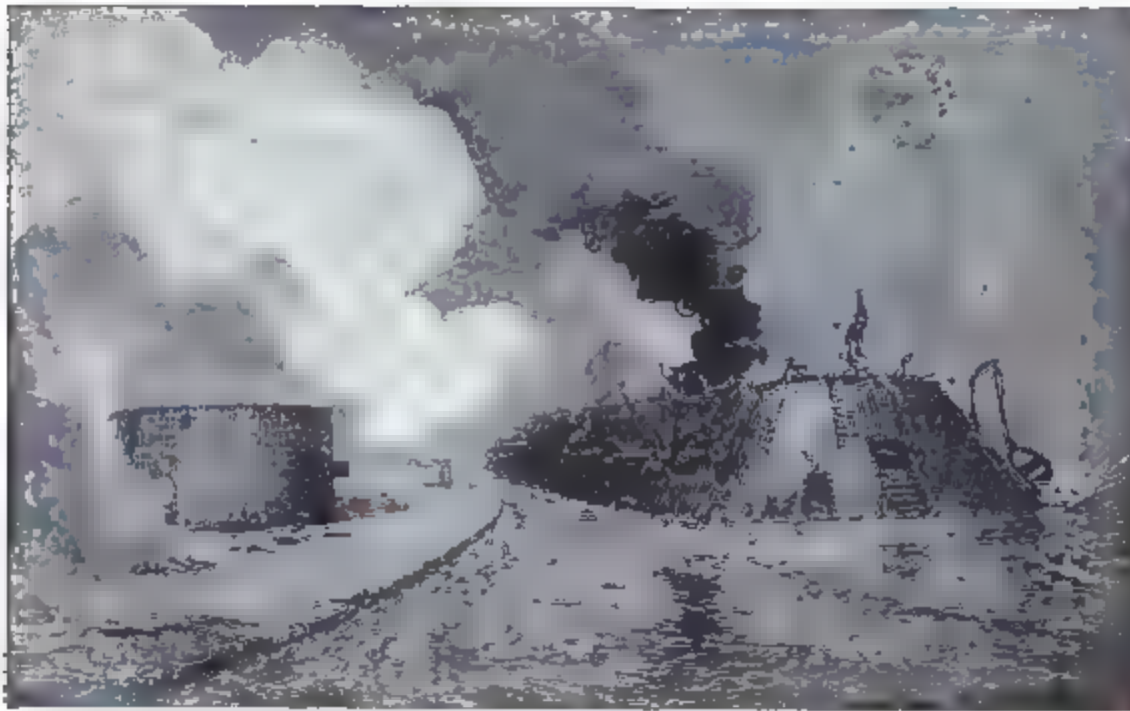
241. The Merrimac and the Monitor.—In the East the country at the beginning of 1862 was anxiously waiting for McClellan to lead his splendid army against Richmond. But more than two months passed before the slow and cautious general



Hampton Roads.

began to advance. In the meantime there occurred (March 9) in Hampton Roads, at the mouth of the James River, one of the most interesting events of the war. This was the battle of the *Monitor* and the *Merrimac*. The latter was an ironclad ram which the Confederates fitted out to destroy the ships of the Union navy stationed in Chesapeake Bay. On March 8 the *Merrimac* attacked the *Cumberland*. The battle was between an ironclad and a wooden ship. The shot from the *Cumberland*

glanced from the iron sides of the *Merrimac* like so many peas, but when the iron beak of the *Merrimac* rammed the wooden vessel in the side, it made a great hole through which water rushed, and the *Cumberland*, with all on board, went down. Next the *Merrimac* attacked another wooden vessel, the *Congress*, and it too went down. The next day (March 9), as the *Merrimac* was going forth to renew its work of destruction, there hove in sight a strange-looking craft which was likened by some to "a

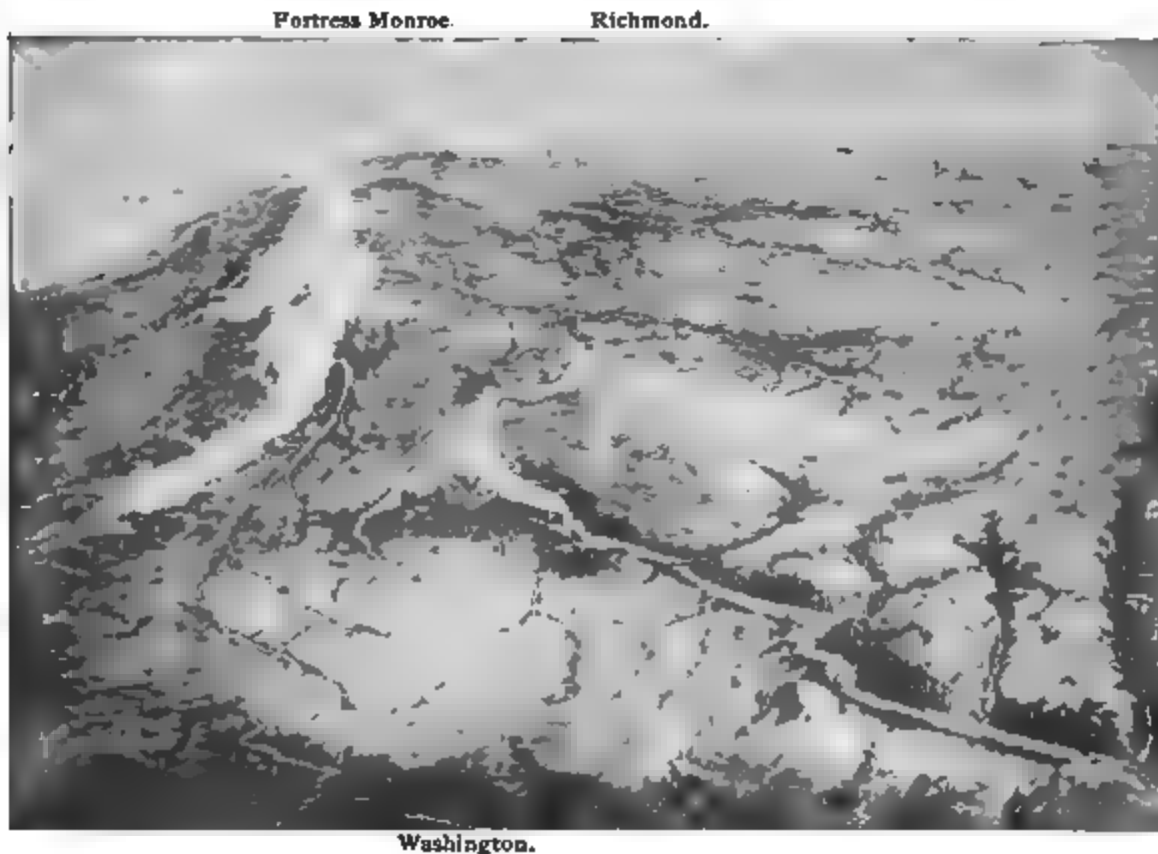


The Monitor and the Merrimac.

cheese-box on a raft" and by others to "a tin can on a shingle." The new-comer was the *Monitor*, a low-decked, ironclad vessel with a revolving turret carrying heavy guns. She had been fitted out hurriedly in New York and had come down to fight the *Merrimac*. The little *Monitor* at once gave battle to the Confederate ram. The fight was now between the two ironclads. It was a gallant struggle on both sides, but neither vessel won a decided victory. Nevertheless the *Merrimac* put back to Norfolk and did no further mischief to the Union navy.

242. The Peninsular Campaign.—A few days after the battle of the ironclads McClellan began his long-delayed advance upon Richmond. Leaving Washington (March 17), he took his army by water to Fortress Monroe, from which place he marched his troops up the peninsula which lies between the York and James

rivers. He spent a month in preparing for the capture of Yorktown, but just as he was ready to attack, the Confederates slipped away. McClellan pursued them and engaged them in battle at Williamsburg. At night the Confederates again slipped away and marched toward Richmond. McClellan followed them



Bird's-eye view of the scene of the Peninsular Campaign.

Looking toward the south from a point north of Washington.

The city of Washington lies nearly in the center of the picture — the dark spot on the broadest part of the river (the Potomac) in the foreground. The next river is the Rappahannock, the next the York, and the last the James. All these rivers flow into Chesapeake Bay. Richmond is the dark spot on the James River, almost due south from Washington. The "Peninsula" is the land between the York and the James rivers. McClellan, starting from Fortress Monroe, moved his army up the Peninsula toward Richmond.

until they were within seven miles of the Confederate capital. He took a position on the Chickahominy River (map, p. 329), near Fair Oaks, where he was attacked (May 31) by the Confederates, who on the first day of the battle were successful, but on the second day were defeated. In the battle General Joseph E. Johnston, the commander of the Confederates, was wounded. General Robert E. Lee was appointed in his place.

Lee was trained for the army at West Point, where he was graduated in 1829, second in his class. He served in the Mexi-

can War under Scott and rendered valuable service at Vera Cruz. At the outbreak of the war he was an officer in the Union army and was in line for promotion to the highest rank. Indeed, the chief command of the Union forces was practically offered to him. But he refused the offer. He loved the Union, but he could not, he said, lead an army of invasion into his native State. So he left the Union army and went over to the Confederacy. In doing this he followed what to him seemed the true path of duty. Lee proved to be a tower of strength to the Confederacy. His high character and noble purposes won the esteem and admiration of friend and foe, and he managed the Southern forces with such ability that he secured for himself a foremost rank among the great generals of history.



Robert E. Lee.

Born in Virginia, in 1807; died in 1870.

It had been planned that in the attack upon Richmond McClellan should be assisted by McDowell, who had an army of 40,000 men. But this plan was brought to naught by "Stonewall" Jackson, perhaps the greatest military genius produced by the Civil War. This daring and brilliant general, with 15,000 men, rushed down the Shenandoah valley, carrying everything before him. He cleared the valley of Union troops and marched his army so close to Washington that the safety of the capital was threatened. Lincoln was greatly alarmed by Jackson's movements, and he recalled McDowell to protect the capital.

Jackson, after giving the people of Washington this scare, made his way back to Richmond and joined Lee in the struggle against McClellan, who was greatly crippled by the absence of McDowell's army. On June 25 fighting began at Mechanicsville and continued in the neighborhood of Richmond for seven days. During this long battle there was hard fighting on both sides, and the loss of life was very great. The victory—if there

was a victory at all—was on the side of the Confederates, for they checked the advance of the Union army and saved their capital. So McClellan's Peninsular Campaign ended in failure.

243. The Second Battle of Manassas; Antietam; Fredericksburg.—Lincoln, having now lost confidence in McClellan, caused a new army—the Army of Virginia—to be organized, and placed Pope (p. 337) at its head. He met (August 29–30) the Confederates under Lee on the old battle-field of Manassas and was defeated. On September 2, McClellan was placed in command “of all the troops for the defense of the capital”; and Pope, relieved at his own request, was, on September 7, assigned to the Northwest.

After his victory at Manassas, Lee crossed the Potomac and marched into Maryland. McClellan followed, and on the 16th and 17th of September a great battle was fought at Antietam Creek. The losses on both sides were enormous, but the loss of the Confederates was the heavier. Lee recrossed the Potomac, but McClellan failed to pursue him.

Because McClellan did not follow up his victory at Antietam he was again removed, and the command was given to General Burnside; but the choice was most unfortunate for the Union army. Burnside had no confidence in himself, and his soldiers had no confidence in him. He attacked the Confederates under Lee (December 13) at Fredericksburg (map, p. 329) and was defeated with terrible slaughter. Burnside was soon removed, and General Hooker—“fighting Joe Hooker”—was appointed in his place.

244. The Emancipation Proclamation.—When Lee was invading Maryland, Lincoln made “a solemn vow before God” that if the Confederates were driven back he would celebrate the victory by giving the slaves their freedom. Accordingly, five days after Lee was defeated at Antietam, Lincoln issued the Emancipation Proclamation, which declared that if the seceded States did not lay down their arms and return to the Union before January 1, 1863, all persons held as slaves within the Confederate lines should be thenceforth and forever free. This proclamation did not apply to the slave States of Delaware,

Maryland, Kentucky, and Missouri, for these were loyal to the Union. Nor did it apply to the western part of Virginia or to such parts of the Confederacy as were under the control of Union troops. Lincoln issued this proclamation simply as a war measure, for under the Constitution he had no right to give the slaves their freedom. The proclamation was issued in order

That on the first day of January in the year of our Lord, one thousand eight hundred and sixty-three, all persons held as slaves within any state, or designated part of a state, the people whereof shall then be in rebellion against the United States, shall be then, thenceforward, and forever free; and the executive government, including the military and naval authorities thereof of the United States, will, during the continuance in office of the present members, recognize and maintain the freedom of such persons, and will do no act or acts to restrain such persons, or any

A part of President Lincoln's draft of the Emancipation Proclamation

to save the Union. If the South had laid down its arms and come back into the Union, not a single slave would have been taken from his master. But the Confederacy did not heed the proclamation. It preferred to go on with the fight.

245. The Battle of Chancellorsville.—No wonder the Confederacy refused to lay down its arms on January 1, 1863, in accordance with the terms of the Emancipation Proclamation, for at that time the prospects of the South were very bright, while a deep gloom overspread the North because of the awful disaster at Fredericksburg. And the gloom of the North was presently to become deeper.



Lines of defense to October 1, 1862.

This map is helpful as showing the border-lines between North and South at different periods of the war. In the beginning the State of Missouri was held by the Confederates as far north as the Missouri River, and they held a large part of Kentucky and what was then the western part of Virginia (which soon became the State of West Virginia). By January 1, 1862, much of Missouri, Kentucky, and West Virginia had been won by the Union side. The next line (April 1, 1862) drops down the Mississippi River and gives Shiloh to the Union armies. By October 1, 1862, still more territory had been taken from the Confederates (including the region around New Orleans in Louisiana), although Bragg's raid into Kentucky (p. 338) gave them a large inroad into the Northern lines at that point.

The map does not show the operations in Virginia and the East.

When Hooker took command of the Army of the Potomac it was disheartened and sulky and was dropping to pieces. Desertions were at the rate of two hundred in a day. Eighty-five thousand officers and men were absent from duty without leave. But Hooker was a good manager and a strict disciplinarian. By the beginning of April he had his army well organized and was ready for hard fighting. On May 1, Hooker, with more than 100,000 men, advanced upon Lee, who was at Chancellorsville (map, above) with an army of 60,000 men. Lee, at great risk, divided his army, giving a portion of it to Jackson and ordering him to make a roundabout march and attack Hooker on the Union right. While the Union soldiers on the right were cooking their food,

pitching their tents, and, in some cases, playing cards, "there came upon them a sudden irruption of rabbits, birds, deer, wild creatures of the woods fleeing from some danger behind."¹ The danger from which the frightened creatures were fleeing was Stonewall Jackson, dashing through the woods with 26,000 men. He fell upon Hooker's right wing and crushed it at a blow, throwing the entire Union army into confusion. But it was Jackson's last charge, for in the battle he received a mortal wound.²

Lee completed the work begun by Jackson and carried the Confederates on to victory. The defeat at Chancellorsville was even more disastrous than the defeat at Fredericksburg, and when the news of the battle reached the North, discouragement was seen written on every brow. "Many men who were in earnest in their support of the war gave up all idea that the South could be conquered." The darkest days for the Union were the days just after the battle of Chancellorsville.

246. Naval Warfare.—Since the Confederacy had no navy worthy of the name, the naval operations of the Civil War were not of very great importance. The chief task of the Union navy was to maintain an effective blockade. This was no easy task, for there was a coast-line of 1900 miles to be guarded. By the end of the first year of the war most of the sea-coast from Norfolk to the Gulf was in Union hands, and by the end of the second year the Gulf ports also were controlled by Union war-ships. The blockade was in the main a success. There was, to be sure, considerable blockade-running—dashing past the blockading vessels under the cover of darkness—but the great volume of the trade of the South was destroyed by the blockade.

¹ "American Nation," Vol. XX, p. 257.

² He was removed from the field, and it was found necessary to amputate his left arm. Lee, observing the loss of the arm, said: "General, you have fared better than I, for you have lost only your left arm, while I have lost my right." So Jackson came to be regarded as the "right arm of the Confederacy." He died (May 10) a few days after the battle. "The South will always believe that, had he lived, her cause would have won." (Hosmer.)

The South in turn managed to inflict great injury upon the trade of the North. She purchased abroad a small fleet of armed cruisers and sent them roving about the seas to capture American merchant ships wherever found. The most famous of these commerce-destroyers was the *Alabama*, commanded by Raphael Semmes. This vessel was built in England, with the full knowledge of the English government. She was manned by English sailors, but commanded by Confederate officers. The *Alabama* cruised in the Atlantic Ocean for two years and captured sixty-



The fight between the *Kearsarge* and the *Alabama*.

six merchant vessels. In June, 1864, she was sunk off Cherbourg (France) by the American man-of-war *Kearsarge*, commanded by John A. Winslow. The *Shenandoah* was another famous commerce-destroyer. She was purchased in England and armed with guns delivered to her by a British ship at a barren island near Madeira. She cruised in the Pacific and destroyed thirty-eight vessels before the end of the Civil War.¹

¹ After the war Great Britain was asked to pay damages for the injury inflicted by these vessels upon our commerce, and in 1872 a board of arbitration met at Geneva and awarded \$15,500,000 to be distributed among those whose ships and property had been destroyed. This is known as the *Geneva Award*.

QUESTIONS ON THE TEXT

1. What was the plan of campaign of the Union forces?
2. Give an account of the capture of Fort Donelson. What effect did the capture of the fort have? Sketch the life of General Grant up to 1861.
3. Give an account of the battle of Shiloh.
4. How was the Mississippi opened at the North? At the South?
5. Describe the military operations of Bragg in 1862.
6. Describe the encounter between the *Merrimac* and the *Monitor*.
7. Give an account of McClellan's Peninsular Campaign. Sketch the life of General Lee up to 1862.
8. When, by, whom, and with what result was the second battle of Manassas fought? The battle at Antietam Creek? The battle at Fredericksburg?
9. When and under what circumstances was the Emancipation Proclamation issued? What were the provisions of the proclamation?
10. Give an account of the battle at Chancellorsville, May, 1863.
11. How did the South manage to inflict injury upon the commerce of the North? What was the Geneva Award?

REVIEW AND READING REFERENCES

1. Dates: 1588, 1777, 1781, 1787, 1812, 1825, 1861 (2).
2. Places: Plymouth, Bunker Hill, Yorktown, Charleston, Manassas.
3. Persons: Penn, Oglethorpe, Champlain, Marquette, La Salle, Madison, Jackson, De Witt Clinton, Fillmore, Morse, Fulton, Davis, McClellan.
4. Tell what you can about: The voyage of Magellan; the Plymouth colony; Bacon's Rebellion; King Philip's War; the treaty of 1783; the Louisiana Purchase; the naval operations of the War of 1812; the battle of New Orleans; the treaty of Ghent; the first steamboat; the Erie Canal; the invention of the telegraph; the invention of the sewing-machine; the secession of the Confederate States; the firing upon Fort Sumter; the battle of Manassas; the capture of Mason and Slidell.
5. Topics: Farragut at New Orleans: 3, 313-315. The Emancipation Proclamation: 3, 315-318. Murfreesboro: 3, 318-320. The *Merrimac* and the *Monitor*: 11, 274-286. The Picket Guard: 14, 433. Lee and Grant: 22, 274-288.



Farragut. Sherman. Thomas. Meade. Lincoln. Grant. Hooker. Sheridan. Hancock.

The Union leaders.

From a lithograph published by the Notman Photographic Co.

XL

THE CIVIL WAR: THE CLOSE OF THE STRUGGLE

Under the sod and the dew,
Waiting the judgment day:
Love and tears for the Blue,
Tears and love for the Gray.

F M Finch.



Monument at Gettysburg marking the height of Pickett's Charge, called "The High-water Mark of the Rebellion."

Introduction.—In the last chapter we followed the course of the Civil War from the capture of Fort Donelson, in February, 1862, by the Union forces, to the defeat of the Army of the Potomac at Chancellorsville in May, 1863. For the people of the North this was a period of doubt and gloom, for although during this time the Union forces in the West were in the main successful, in the East they were in the main un-

successful. In this chapter we shall follow the story of the war to its close, and as we proceed we shall find the North growing more hopeful at every step.

247. The Battle of Gettysburg.—After his great victory at Chancellorsville, Lee again crossed the Potomac. This time he led his army through Maryland into Pennsylvania, advancing as far as Chambersburg and Carlisle, and even shaking the houses in Harrisburg with the roar of his cannon. It was his plan to frighten and, if possible, to capture Philadelphia and New York. The North had good reason to be alarmed by Lee's bold movements, and the Army of the Potomac, now under the command of General Meade, was hurried North to check the Confederate advance. Meade faced Lee near the town of Gettysburg (map, p. 329) on July 1, 1863, and there followed the greatest battle

of the Civil War and one of the greatest battles in the history of the world. Both armies were in excellent condition for fighting, and both sides fought as if everything depended upon the outcome of the battle. The fighting continued for three days.

On the afternoon of the third day, General Pickett made a most desperate effort to break through the Union lines, but was unsuccessful. After the failure of Pickett's charge the Confederates gave up the fight. Lee led his army back into Virginia, where he remained undisturbed until the spring of 1864. In the stubborn and bloody battle of Gettysburg the Union army lost in killed, wounded, and missing, 23,000 out of 93,500 men; the Confederates lost 20,500 out of 70,000.

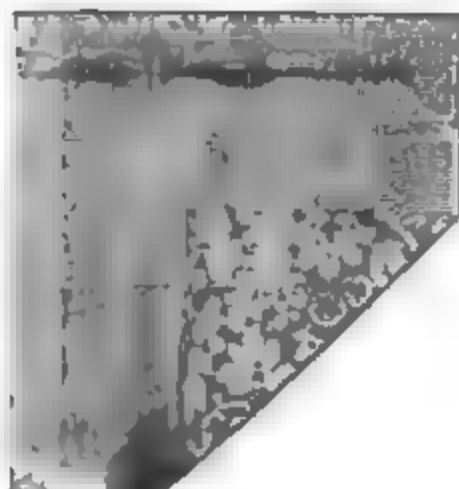
248. The Fall of Vicksburg.—Along with the victory at Gettysburg came another great Union victory at Vicksburg (map,



The siege of Vicksburg.

p. 332). It will be remembered that after the capture of New Orleans by Farragut in April, 1862, the Mississippi from Vicksburg to Port Hudson still remained in the possession of the Confederates. In the fall of 1862 General Grant set out to capture Vicksburg and Port Hudson and thus open the Mississippi throughout its entire length. His first attempt failed, but failure with Grant was only an inspiration to fight harder than ever. He pushed

on with his plans for the capture of the Gibraltar of the West—as Vicksburg was called—and before the end of May (1863) had invested the city with a large army. For weeks he stormed the place with shot and shell by day and by night. At last, when food was gone and further resistance seemed useless, Vicksburg surrendered, and 30,000 Confederate soldiers were made prisoners of war. The surrender was made July 4, only a day after the Confederates were turned back at Gettysburg. On July 9 Port Hudson fell. The Mississippi from its source to its mouth was now under the control of the Union forces. Its waters, as Lincoln said, flowed unvexed to the sea.



A Vicksburg newspaper during the siege.

Printed on the back of wall-paper, the supply of ordinary paper having been exhausted.

Thus by the capture of Vicksburg General Grant cut the Confederacy in twain and accomplished one of the great purposes of the Union plan of campaign.

249. Chickamauga and Chattanooga.—With Vicksburg and the Mississippi safe in their hands, the Union forces were free to advance eastward and help Rosecrans, who was soon to be in sore need of help. For six months after the battle of Murfreesboro (p. 338), Rosecrans made no forward movement. In June (1863), however, he marched against Bragg with a superior force and on September 8 drove him from Chattanooga (map, p. 332). This city was a stronghold of great importance. It was the natural highway between Tennessee and Georgia, and at the time was the chief railway center of the South. Bragg, after withdrawing from Chattanooga, took a position close by in Chickamauga (map, p. 332) valley. Here Rosecrans and Bragg met and fought a battle which lasted two days. On the afternoon of the second day the Confederates drove the right wing of the Union army from the field, and it looked as if their victory would be overwhelming. But the left wing of the Union army was commanded by General Thomas, one of the ablest and brav-

est generals of the Civil War. Thomas held the left wing firm and fast, and saved the Union army from a disgraceful rout, although he could not save it from defeat.¹ At night the Union troops withdrew to Chattanooga, where they were surrounded by the army of Bragg and held until they were threatened with starvation.

Before it was too late, fresh troops arrived for the relief of Chattanooga. Grant was placed in command of all the forces and was hurried to the scene. Fighting Joe Hooker came with an army from Virginia. Sherman also hastened with an army from the West. Thomas took command of the army of Rosecrans.

On November 23 the Union forces under Grant began to fight their way out of Chattanooga. On November 24 Hooker fought the battle of Lookout Mountain—the Battle above the Clouds—and drove the Confederates from their position. The next day Thomas and Sherman attacked Missionary Ridge and captured it at the point of the bayonet. Bragg, now beaten in every direction, retreated to Dalton, in Georgia.

Thus at Chattanooga Grant led the Union army to victory and opened a doorway through which Union troops from the West might pour into Virginia, the Carolinas, Georgia, and Alabama. With the capture of Chattanooga the Union conquest of the Mississippi valley was complete. There remained to be conquered only the seaboard States.

250. Sherman's March to the Sea.—Grant's great services in the West were highly appreciated by Lincoln. "I like that man," said the President, "for he wins battles." After his crowning success at Chattanooga, Grant was called to Washington and in March (1864) was given the command of all the armies of the United States, and had conferred upon him the rank of lieutenant-general, a title that had hitherto been held only by Washington and Scott. Grant's place in the West was given to Sherman, who had his headquarters at Chattanooga.

Grant and Sherman now agreed upon a final plan of cam-

¹ For his firmness on this occasion Thomas was given the title "The Rock of Chickamauga."



N. B. Forrest

A. S. Johnston
L. Polk

Wade Hampton
J. B. Gordon
N. S. Ellwell

G. T. Beauregard
Jefferson Davis

R. E. Lee

Sterling Price
J. E. Johnston

A. P. Hill
Braxton Bragg
T. J. Jackson

The Confederate leaders.

paign. According to this plan, Grant was to fight Lee in Virginia, while Sherman was to attack Johnston¹ at Dalton, conquer Georgia, and move northward with the purpose of joining the Union army in Virginia and assisting in the capture of Richmond. Both generals were to begin their movements on the same day, and both were to keep on fighting continuously, regardless of the season or weather.

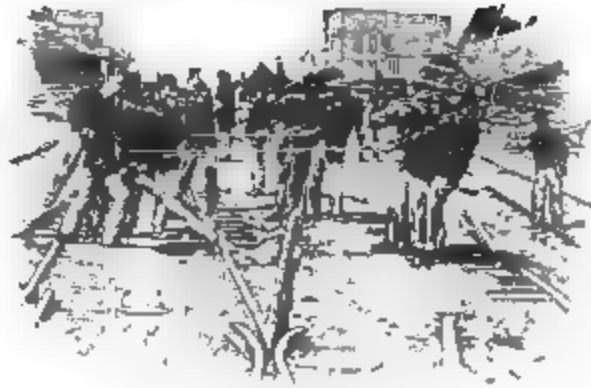
Accordingly, on the appointed day (May 5, 1864) Sherman marched against Joseph E. Johnston at Dalton and drove him from his position. He then pushed on to Atlanta, a great railway center and a city which furnished to the Confederate armies large supplies of ammunition and clothing. The road to Atlanta was rough and mountainous and Sherman was compelled to march slowly. And he was also compelled to do much hard fighting on the way, for Johnston was a skilful general, and he gave battle to Sherman wherever he could do so to advantage. Between Dalton and Atlanta four sharp battles—Resaca, Dallas, Lost Mountain, and Kenesaw Mountain—were fought. While Johnston was thus stubbornly opposing the advance of the Union army he was relieved of his command and General J. B. Hood was appointed in his place. Hood made a brave attempt to check Sherman and save Atlanta, but failed. On September 2, 1864, Sherman took possession of the city and Hood was forced to retire.

After withdrawing from Atlanta Hood marched toward Nashville, hoping that Sherman would follow. But, since Thomas was at Nashville, Sherman did not follow. He believed Thomas could take care of himself, and in this he was right, for, when Hood attacked Nashville, Thomas sallied forth (December 15–16, 1864) and utterly routed Hood's army.

With Hood's army out of the way, Sherman had no foe of any strength to oppose him. On November 16 he started with 60,000 men on his famous march from Atlanta to the sea. His army moved in four columns by four parallel roads. On the march it cut telegraph wires, tore up railroad tracks, and burned bridges. The soldiers helped themselves freely along the route

¹ Bragg had by this time been removed.

to grain and meat and vegetables, and took all the horses, mules, and wagons they needed. In its path the army laid waste a belt of country sixty miles wide at its widest point and three hundred miles long. It was a cruel thing to do, but, as Sherman said, "war is hell."

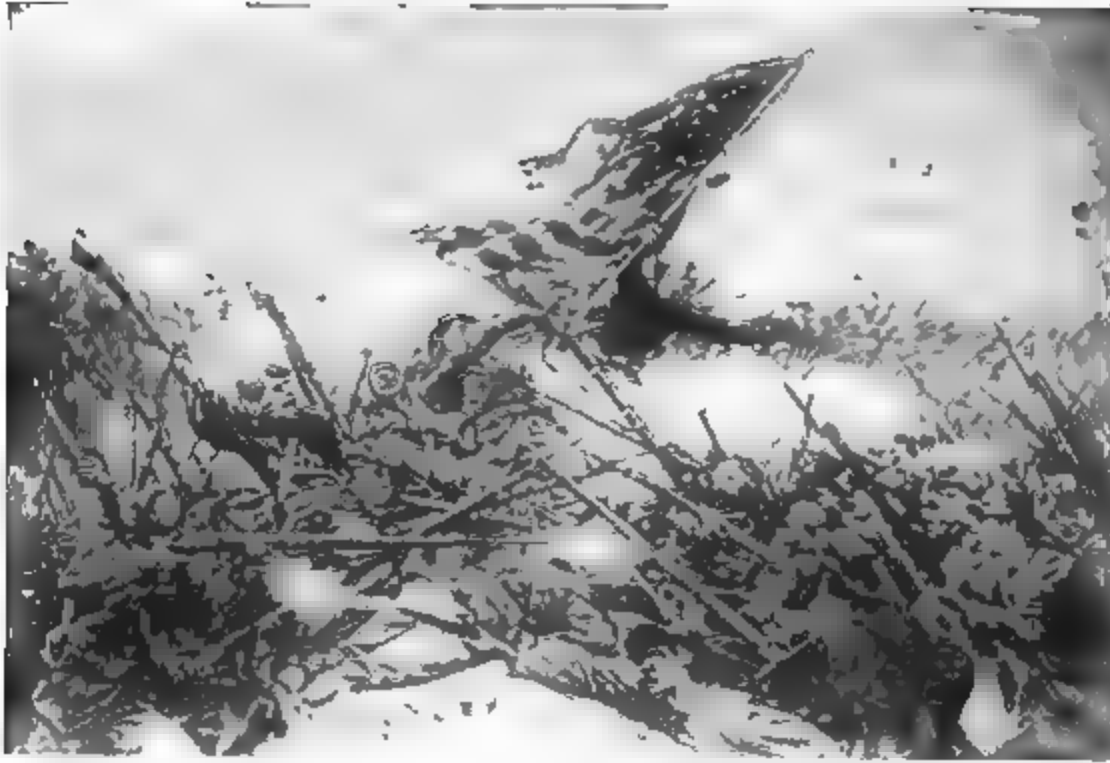


Sherman's soldiers tearing up railroad tracks.

Nothing impeded the progress of the army, and on the 21st of December it entered the city of Savannah in triumph. Sherman at once sent a letter to Lincoln, saying, "I beg leave to present to you as a Christmas gift the city of Savannah."

Sherman remained in Savannah about a month, and then, according to the plan of campaign, moved northward to join Grant in Virginia. He was complete master of the country through which he passed. By the last of March he had subdued South Carolina and had advanced far into North Carolina. With the exception of Virginia and a part of North Carolina, the entire Confederacy was now in the control of the Union forces.

251. Grant's Campaign against Lee.—While Sherman was making himself master of Georgia and the Carolinas, Grant was in Virginia, pounding away at Lee. On May 4, 1864, Grant, with 130,000 men, set out to capture Richmond. He crossed the Rapidan River and plunged into the forest known as the Wilderness (map, p. 329), where he met Lee, who had only 70,000 men. The fighting in the woods was fierce, and the loss of life on both sides was frightful. From the Wilderness Grant pushed on to Spottsylvania Court-House, where he fought the Confederates for five days, losing thousands of his men, but failing to defeat the enemy. But, whether losing or winning, Grant pressed on, his plan being to defeat Lee by incessant attacks. From Spottsylvania he pushed forward and attacked the Confederates at Cold Harbor, where he was beaten back with terrible slaughter. He now hurried past Richmond, with the view of capturing Petersburg,



The "Bloody Angle" at Spottsylvania.

which was simply the back door of Richmond. But Petersburg had been reached by Lee first, and a long siege was necessary before it could be taken (map, p. 329).

While Grant was laying siege to Petersburg, the Shenandoah valley was the scene of stirring events. In July Lee ordered General Early to move down the valley with 20,000 men and threaten Washington, hoping that in this way he would draw Grant from the siege of Petersburg. Early made a bold dash down the valley and at one time was within six miles of Washington. He even invaded Pennsylvania and set fire to the town of Chambersburg. General Philip Sheridan was sent after Early with orders from Grant to "go in." Sheridan "went in" with a vengeance. He defeated Early at Winchester and sent him "whirling up the valley." He then laid waste the bountiful valley, the devastation being so complete that "a crow flying over the country would need to carry his provisions with him."

Early was quickly reinforced after his defeat at Winchester, and during Sheridan's absence he attacked the Union army at Cedar Creek and defeated it and sent it fleeing down the valley in confusion. Sheridan at the time was at Winchester, thirteen miles away, and hearing

"The terrible grumble and rumble and roar,
Telling the battle was on once more,"

put spurs to his horse and galloped toward his army. As he dashed along, he met some of his men running from the enemy. To the fugitives he cried out: "Never mind, boys, we are all right! We will whip them yet!" These words of encouragement caused the soldiers to turn and follow their leader, who renewed the battle against Early and defeated him.

After Sheridan had finished his work in the Shenandoah valley he returned to Petersburg to assist Grant. The siege of the stronghold continued for several months. Grant drew his lines ever tighter and tighter, and at last (April 3, 1865) Petersburg fell, and with it fell Richmond.

The fall of Richmond marked the end of the war and the downfall of the Confederacy. Lee, after leaving the city he had defended so bravely for nearly four years, attempted to break through the Union lines, but he was checked at every step by a greatly superior force, and there was nothing for him to do but lay down his arms. On April 9, 1865, at Appomattox Court-House, he surrendered to Grant his army of 28,000 men.¹ As he took leave of his soldiers, he said: "Men, we have fought through the war together. I have done the best I could for you." Grant in his hour of triumph was courteous and kind. He did not require Lee to give up his sword. He allowed his soldiers to keep their horses, saying they would need them to work their little farms. He gave the conquered army enough food to last five days.

¹ Johnston, on April 26, surrendered to Sherman near Raleigh, North Carolina.



"Sheridan's ride."



Surrender of Lee to Grant.

After the fall of Richmond, President Davis, with his cabinet and clerks, went to Charlotte, North Carolina; but the surrender of Johnston soon made it necessary for the Confederate government to disband and flee. Davis made his way to Georgia, but was captured at Irwinville (May 10, 1865). He was sent to Fortress Monroe, in Virginia, where he was held a prisoner until 1867, when he was released on bail.

252. The Cost of the War.—The war saved the Union and gave freedom to the slave. The price in blood and treasure was

enormous. On the Union side more than 360,000 men were killed in battle or died of wounds or diseases. How many gave up their lives for the Confederacy cannot be accurately stated, but it is likely that the South suffered as heavily as the North.¹ The money loss is stated in figures too large for the mind to comprehend. The expenses of the Union army averaged more than half a million dollars a day for a period of four years. At the beginning of the war our national debt was very small; at the end of the war it was nearly \$3,000,000,000. The cost of the war to the South was greater in proportion than it was to the North, for in the South stores of cotton, crops, cattle, railroads, bridges, farm-houses, villages, and cities were destroyed. The loss to masters caused by the emancipation of the slaves amounted to something like \$2,000,000,000.

253. How the Expenses of the War were Met.—The

enormous expenses of the Civil War were met by resorting to almost every

method by which it is possible for a government to raise money. First, the taxes were made heavier. Even before the war actually began duties were greatly increased² (March, 1861) by the Morrill Tariff Bill. The high tariff was soon followed by an internal revenue law which placed a heavy tax upon almost every article that men eat, drink, wear, or use. But the expenses of the war were so great that they could not be met by ordinary taxation. So the government was compelled to adopt other means of raising revenue. In 1862 Congress provided for the issuing of \$150,000,000 in United States notes (greenbacks).



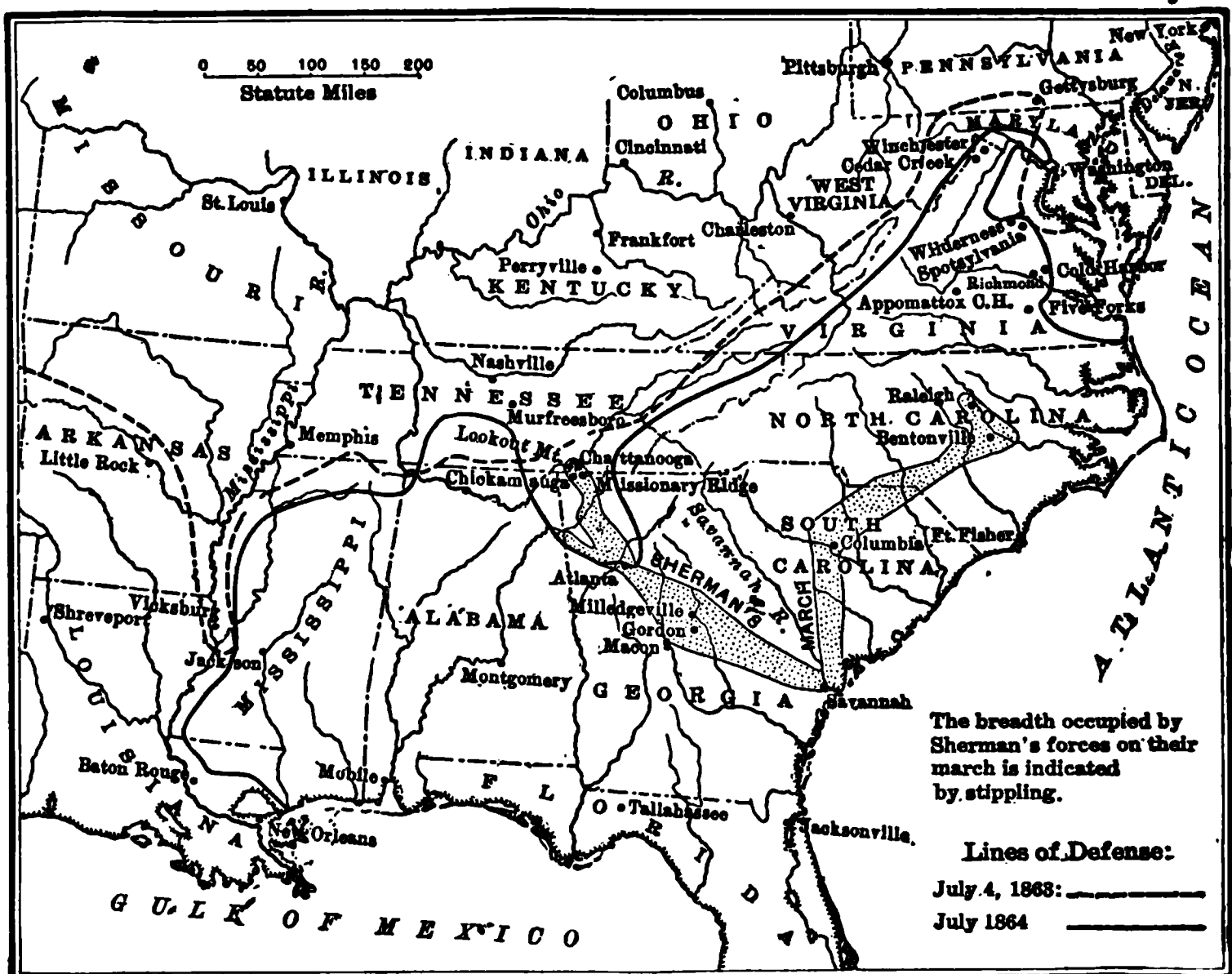
The McLean house at Appomattox, where Lee surrendered.

¹ See "Battles and Leaders of the Civil War," Vol. IV, pp. 767, 768.

² In 1846 the duties on many articles had been lowered by the Walker Tariff, a measure whose chief object was, not to protect home manufactures, but to raise revenue.

These notes were simply paper money, but Congress declared them to be lawful money for the payment of all debts except duties upon imports and interest upon the public debt. The amount of this paper money was increased from time to time until it reached the sum of \$450,000,000. But large issues of paper money and heavy taxation combined could not supply the government with all the money it needed. So it was compelled to borrow large sums. It began (July, 1861) by borrowing \$250,000,000, and by the time the war was over its debt amounted to more than \$2,500,000,000.

In order to aid the government still further in its financial plans Congress in 1863 established a system of National Banks, the system which we have to-day. Under the law of 1863 banking companies were allowed to deposit bonds of the United



Lines of defense July 4, 1863 and 1864, and Sherman's march.

This is on the same plan as the map on p. 344. By July, 1863, the Union armies had captured Vicksburg and the Confederate armies had advanced north as far as Gettysburg. A year later the line generally had moved south. Sherman, starting from Chattanooga, marched to Atlanta, thence to Savannah, where he turned northward. The width of Sherman's march (sometimes sixty miles) is indicated by the stippling.

States with the Treasury department at Washington and receive bank-notes equal to ninety per cent. of the face value of the bonds. Two years later Congress imposed a tax of ten per cent. on the bank-notes of the State banks, but there was no tax on the notes of the National Banks. In order to get rid of the tax many of the State banks bought the bonds of the government and became National Banks.

QUESTIONS ON THE TEXT

1. What was Lee's purpose in invading Pennsylvania? Give an account of the battle of Gettysburg.
2. Give an account of the fall of Vicksburg. Why was the capture of this city an important event?
3. Give an account of the battle of Chickamauga. What great service did General Thomas render in the battle? Give an account of the battle of Chattanooga. Why was the capture of this city an important event?
4. What was the final plan of campaign mapped out by Grant and Sherman? Give an account of the battle of Nashville. Describe Sherman's march from Atlanta to the sea.
5. Give an account of Grant's campaign against Lee from the battle of the Wilderness to the beginning of the siege of Petersburg. Describe Sheridan's campaign in the Shenandoah valley. What was the closing scene of the war?
6. What was the cost of the war in human life? What was the cost in money?
7. Describe the methods by which the expenses of the war were met.

REVIEW AND READING REFERENCES

1. Dates: 1522, 1609, 1846, 1860, 1861 (2), 1862 (2).
2. Places: Schenectady, Quebec, New Orleans (3), Charleston (2), Harper's Ferry, Fort Donelson, Chancellorsville.
3. Persons: John Winthrop, Bacon, Andros, Tecumseh, W. H. Harrison, Tyler, Polk, Taylor, Douglas, John Brown, Buchanan, Lincoln, Davis, McClellan, Grant, Lee.
4. Tell what you can about: the founding of Pennsylvania; the Frontier Line in 1700; the Articles of Confederation; the Convention of 1787; the Ordinance of 1787; the settlement of Ohio; the election of 1840; the annexation of Texas; the acquisition of Oregon; the treaty of Guadalupe; the Kansas-Nebraska Bill; the Dred Scott decision; John Brown's Raid; the election of 1860; the secession of the Confederate States; the

firing upon Fort Sumter; the battle of Manassas; the capture of Mason and Slidell; the capture of Fort Donelson; the *Merrimac* and the *Monitor*; the battle of Chancellorsville.

5. Topics: The battle of Gettysburg: 15 (Vol. II), 95-128; also 11, 306-326. Causes of Northern success: 15 (Vol. II), 129-147. Vicksburg: 3, 321-323; also 11, 295-305. The surrender of Lee: 3, 329-333.

IMPORTANT MOVEMENTS IN THE WAR OF SECESSION			WEST	EAST
			Border fighting in West Virginia, Kentucky and Missouri	Fort Sumter Bull Run Coast Battles
			Forts Henry and Donelson Island No. 10 Shiloh New Orleans Corinth	Peninsula Campaign Jackson in the Shenandoah Lee's First Invasion Fredericksburg
			Union side successful in the West	Confederate side successful in the East
			Vicksburg Port Hudson Mississippi River open Chickamauga Chattanooga Central gateway open	Chancellorsville Lee's Second Invasion and Gettysburg
			Union Side has the advantage both in the East and in the West	
			Sherman's March from Chattanooga to Atlanta and Savannah in the East Nashville	Grant vs. Lee in Wilderness Campaign (Desperate fighting Victories for both sides) Sheridan in the Shenandoah
			Union victories Confederate victories	Grant, Sherman, Thomas and Sheridan all converging to- ward Lee's Army and Richmond Surrender of the Confederate Armies

XLI

BINDING UP THE NATION'S WOUNDS

With malice toward none, with charity for all, with firmness in the right as God gives us to see the right, let us strive on to finish the work we are in, to bind up the nation's wounds.

Lincoln's Second Inaugural.



The house in which President Lincoln died.

254. The Death of Lincoln.—No sooner had the country begun to rejoice that the war was over and that “a healing time of peace” was at hand than it was plunged into gloom by the occurrence of an awful tragedy. On April 14, 1865, precisely four years after the fall of Fort Sumter and five days after Lee’s surrender at Appomattox, President Lincoln,¹ while sitting in his box in a theater in Washington, was shot in the head by John Wilkes Booth,

an actor who, in his sympathy for the South, had become a fanatic because the South had failed to win.² Lincoln fell forward unconscious when he was shot, and never regained consciousness. He sank rapidly, and on the morning of April 15 he died.

¹ Lincoln was now just entering upon his second term as President, having been reelected in the fall of 1864 over General McClellan, the Democratic candidate. He received the electoral votes of all the States except New Jersey, Delaware, and Kentucky.

² Booth was one of a party of conspirators whose purpose was to assassinate the leading officers of the government. One of the conspirators forced his way to the bed of Secretary Seward (p. 321) and stabbed him but did not kill him. Booth was tracked to his hiding-place and shot. (Read the *Century Magazine* for April, 1896.)

The death of Lincoln brought sorrow to the South as well as to the North. The North mourned his loss because it felt that his patience and firmness and devotion had saved the Union. The South grieved because it felt that it had lost a powerful friend.

THE ADMINISTRATION OF ANDREW JOHNSON (1865-69)

255. Andrew Johnson.—Three hours after Lincoln's death the Vice-President, Andrew Johnson of Tennessee, was sworn in as President. In many respects the life of Johnson was a counterpart of the life of Lincoln. His childhood was spent in poverty. At a very early age he was compelled to earn his own bread. He taught himself the art of reading. He did not learn to write until after his marriage, when he was taught by his wife. He was always a Democrat in politics, but in 1864 he was placed on the Republican ticket as a candidate for the Vice-Presidency. In his public career he held almost every office from that of alderman to that of President. He had many of the noble qualities of Lincoln; he was honest and fearless and firm. But he lacked Lincoln's calmness of judgment and kindness of heart.

256. The Work of Reconstruction.—The task that faced Johnson and the Congress in 1865 was almost as difficult as the task that faced Lincoln and the Congress four years before. In 1861 a Union was to be saved; in 1865 a Union was to be reconstructed. In the work of reconstruction three great questions had to be settled: (1) What should be done with those who had taken up arms against the Union? (2) What should be done with the negroes of the South? (3) What should be done with the seceded States?

(1) Johnson regarded the leaders of the Confederacy as traitors, and he wished them to be punished severely. But Lincoln, at a cabinet meeting on the last afternoon of his life, had advised against harsh measures. "I hope," he said, "there will be no persecution, no bloody work after this war is over. No one need expect me to take any part in hanging or killing those men [the Confederate leaders], even the worst of them.

Enough lives have been sacrificed. We must extinguish our resentment if we expect harmony and union." The mild policy of Lincoln was carried out. There was no bloody work, no vengeance. Even President Davis was never brought to trial. On May 29, 1865, amnesty and pardon were offered to all who had been in arms against the Union, provided they would take oath that they would henceforth support and defend the Constitution of the United States and abide by the laws made with reference to the emancipation of slaves. There were some excepted classes, it is true, but, speaking broadly, pardon was placed within easy reach of all who had joined the Confederacy.

(2) In dealing with the negro question Congress first sent out (February, 1865) to the States, for their ratification, the Thirteenth Amendment to the Constitution, which abolished slavery entirely in the United States. By December, 1865, this amendment had been ratified by twenty-seven States and was the law of the

land. Thus three and a half million persons were transformed from a condition of slavery to a condition of freedom. Of course the freedmen at first hardly knew what liberty was. At the close of the war William Lloyd Garrison visited Charleston, South Carolina, where he met a crowd of negroes just set free. "Well, my friends," he said to them, "you are free at last; let us give three cheers for freedom!" And he undertook to lead the cheering. But he cheered alone. The poor creatures gave no response; they merely looked at him in wonderment. They knew nothing about cheering; they knew nothing about freedom.

In March, 1865, Congress established a Freedmen's Bureau, which was to look after the interests of former slaves and protect them from injustice at the hands of the white men. This



Andrew Johnson.

Born in North Carolina, in 1808; governor of Tennessee, Vice-President, 1865, succeeded Lincoln as seventeenth President, 1865-69; died in 1875.

bureau assigned abandoned lands to freedmen; it did what it could to improve the morals of the freedmen; it took care that the negro laborer should receive something like a fair compensation for his labor. "In short, the bureau assumed a general guardianship over the emancipated race."

In 1866 it was thought that the South was not giving the negro all the rights a freeman ought to have. So Congress passed the Civil Rights Bill, which declared the freedmen to be citizens of the United States and guaranteed to them the same civil rights as are enjoyed by white citizens. Since this law might be repealed by a succeeding Congress, a Fourteenth Amendment was sent out to the States to be ratified. This amendment guaranteed equal civil rights to all citizens, regardless of race or color, and it based the representation of a State in Congress on the number of voters in the State. If the negroes in a State were not allowed to vote, the number of Representatives in that State was reduced in proportion to the number of negroes who were denied the suffrage. The Fourteenth Amendment was ratified by a sufficient number of States, and thus (in 1868) became a law that Congress could not repeal.

It was desired by the leaders in Congress that the negroes be allowed to vote whether the Southern States wished them to do so or not. So Congress submitted to the States the Fifteenth Amendment, which guarantees that a citizen shall not be denied the right to vote on account of his race, color, or previous condition of servitude. This amendment was adopted in 1870 and was the last of the great measures brought forward to help the freedmen.

(3) While it was dealing with the negro question, Congress was, at the same time, dealing with the seceded States. Everybody wished these States to come back into the Union, but Congress refused to restore a State to its old place in the Union unless it would first comply with certain conditions. During the time a State was making up its mind whether it would comply with the conditions or not, it was ruled by a military governor appointed by the President. The conditions imposed upon a State were:

- (1) It must agree to the complete abolition of slavery.
- (2) It must ratify the Fourteenth Amendment.
- (3) It must agree not to pay off any of the debts contracted by the Confederates.

One by one the seceded States agreed to the conditions laid down by Congress, and by 1871 all were back in the Union and all were enjoying equal rights with the other States. When the work of reconstruction was finished we had an "indestructible Union of indestructible States."

257. The Impeachment of Andrew Johnson.—While the work of reconstruction was going on, a fierce quarrel arose between President Johnson and Congress. Johnson held the opinion that the Civil War was only an ordinary uprising of citizens against the government and that when the war was ended all that was necessary to be done was to punish the leaders of the uprising. The States, he contended, had never been out of the Union and had never lost any of their rights, and he was stoutly opposed to any action that interfered with the rights of a State. On this ground he vetoed the bill creating the Freedmen's Bureau and the Civil Rights Bill. Congress, however, with a two-thirds vote passed both measures over his head.

By 1867 the quarrel between Johnson and Congress had become very bitter, and Congress in that year, in order to hamper Johnson, passed the Tenure of Office Act, which provided that the President should not remove any public officer without the consent of the Senate. Johnson denied the right of Congress to make such a law, and he very soon disobeyed it. This led (February, 1868) to his impeachment. In the House of Representatives he was impeached (accused) of high crimes and misdemeanors. The impeachment (accusation) was tried in the Senate, where a two-thirds vote is necessary to convict. The trial lasted two months, and when the vote was taken thirty-five Senators voted "Guilty" and nineteen "Not guilty." With one more vote against him, Johnson would have been convicted and removed from office. As it was, he escaped.

258. The French in Mexico (1861-67); the Purchase of Alaska.—Besides the events connected with reconstruction, two

other events of Johnson's administration require notice. One of these was our intervention in the affairs of Mexico. In 1861 France, England, and Spain, acting together, sent an armed force to Mexico to hold her seaports until certain debts were paid. But England and Spain soon withdrew their troops, leaving France to act alone. The Emperor of France, Napoleon III, desired to establish the French power in Mexico. He accordingly overthrew the Mexican government and made Maximilian, a brother of the Emperor of Austria, the Emperor of Mexico. All this, you will observe, was contrary to the Monroe Doctrine (p. 226). Still, at the time, the United States could do nothing but protest, for it had the Civil War on its hands. As soon as the war was over, however, General Sheridan, with a large army, was despatched to the Mexican frontier. France saw what was coming, and the French troops were at once withdrawn (in 1867) from Mexico. Maximilian fell into the hands of the Mexicans and was promptly shot.



Alaska compared with the United States.

If Alaska were placed in the United States, the northern boundary touching Canada, the southeast corner would reach the Atlantic Ocean, and its islands would reach the Pacific.

Another important event of Johnson's administration was the purchase of Alaska, which then belonged to Russia. Just about the time the French troops were leaving Mexico, the Russian min-





ister at Washington offered to sell to the United States Russia's possession in America for the sum of \$7,200,000. The offer was accepted "with almost comical alacrity," and an area of 577,000 square miles was added to our territory. At the time it was thought by many that we had made a bad bargain, but in fact we made a very good bargain, for the furs, fisheries, gold-fields, and coal lands of Alaska are worth the purchase price a hundred times over.

THE ADMINISTRATION OF ULYSSES S. GRANT (1869-77)

259. The Election of Grant.—In the presidential election of 1868 the Republicans nominated as their candidate the man who, next to Lincoln, had done the most to bring success to the Union cause—General U. S. Grant. The Democrats nominated Horatio Seymour of New York. The election gave Grant 214 electoral votes, and Seymour 80. Four years later Grant was reelected over Horace Greeley of New York, by an electoral vote of 286 to 63.

260. "Carpet-Baggers"; the Ku-Klux Klan.—In the first years of Grant's administration the South was overrun with unscrupulous adventurers who came from the North and who received the name of "carpet-baggers" because it was said that they brought with them from the North nothing but their traveling-satchels. These carpet-baggers, by playing upon the prejudices of the freedmen and taking advantage of their ignorance, secured their votes, and in several States, where the blacks outnumbered the whites, gained control of the government. Where the carpet-baggers were most successful, as in Alabama, Florida, South Carolina, Louisiana, and Mississippi, public affairs were managed in a most shameful and corrupt manner. In Alabama in one county the clerk was a horse-thief and the sheriff a negro who could not read. In the legislature the negro members



Ulysses S. Grant.

Born at Point Pleasant, Ohio, in 1822; eighteenth President, 1869-77; died at Mount McGregor, New York, in 1885.

were so ignorant that they could only watch their white leaders—carpet-baggers—and vote aye or no as they were told. When tired they went to sleep, and were awakened when it was time to vote. In South Carolina the corruption under “carpet-bag” rule was shocking in the extreme. In the legislature \$200,000 was spent for furniture and \$150,000 for printing. The most expensive wines, liquors, and cigars were ordered to be sent to the boarding-houses of the members, most of whom were negroes who had been slaves. Watermelons were furnished the members at the expense of the State, and at one session the watermelon bill was \$1800.

To protect themselves against the rule of the negroes and the carpet-baggers, the whites organized a secret society known as the Ku-Klux Klan. The members of this society did all they could to prevent the negro from voting and to make the life of the carpet-bagger miserable. In carrying out its purposes the Ku-Klux Klan committed many outrages, and in 1871 Congress caused the society to be suppressed and many of its members arrested.

261. Great Fires; the Panic of 1873; the Centennial.—In October, 1871, occurred the great Chicago fire. This fire broke out in a barn and spread with such rapidity that it soon got beyond the control of the firemen. It raged for two days, destroying 17,000 buildings and causing 200 deaths. Seventy thousand persons were rendered homeless, and the property loss was nearly \$200,000,000. Within a year the burned district, covering over 2000 acres, was largely rebuilt, and within two years there was a new Chicago. In 1872 Boston also was visited by a great fire. Nearly eight hundred of its finest buildings were burned and about eighty million dollars' worth of property was destroyed.

Just after these great fires there was a period of hard times. In 1873 a banking-house in Philadelphia failed to meet its obligations and a panic followed. Money was hard to get, men were thrown out of employment, and there was suffering in all parts of the country. The panic lasted for several years and then good times returned.

One of the most interesting events in Grant's administration



The Chicago fire.

was the celebration of the Centennial of America's Independence by the holding of a great international exposition at Philadelphia. The Exposition furnished all nations an opportunity to exhibit their products, and forty of the great governments of the world took part in the display. It was opened on May 10, 1876, by President Grant. It continued open for 158 days and was visited by nearly 10,000,000 people.

THE ADMINISTRATION OF RUTHERFORD B. HAYES (1877-81)

262. The Elections of 1876; the Electoral Commission.—During Grant's second term there was a great deal of wrongdoing among public officials, and by 1876 the country seemed to be ready to turn the Republicans out of power. In the presidential campaign of that year the Democrats nominated Samuel J. Tilden of New York. The Republicans nominated Rutherford B. Hayes of Ohio. The Greenback party nominated James B. Weaver of Iowa. This party was in favor of issuing paper money similar to the United States notes which were issued during the Civil War, and which from their color are known as greenbacks.

These greenbacks do not represent silver or gold, nor are they secured by government bonds as bank-notes are secured. They are paper money, pure and simple, and are based solely on the credit of the country and upon the good faith of the government. The Prohibition party, whose object is to prevent the manufacture and sale of intoxicating liquors, nominated Green Clay Smith of Kentucky. Tilden received the largest popular vote, but there were only 184 electoral votes which were certainly his, and he needed 185. The electoral votes of South Carolina,



Rutherford B. Hayes.

Born in Ohio, in 1822, served in the Union army in the Civil War; member of Congress; governor of Ohio; nineteenth President, 1877-81; died in 1893.

Louisiana, Florida, and Oregon were in doubt. If Hayes could secure *all* the electoral votes of *all* these States, he would be elected; if Tilden could secure only *one* electoral vote in any *one* of these States, he would be elected. In each of the four doubtful States both parties claimed the victory. There was much excitement, and serious trouble was threatened.

To settle the difficulty Congress referred the matter to what was called the Electoral Commission, a body composed of five members of the House of Representatives, five Senators, and five associate justices of the United States Supreme Court—fifteen members in all. This commission, by a vote of eight to seven, decided that all the electoral votes of all the doubtful States belonged to Hayes, who was accordingly declared to be elected and who was inaugurated March 4, 1877.

263. The Removal of the Troops from the South.—One of the first acts of President Hayes was to withdraw (April 9, 1877) from the South the last of the troops of the regular army. The removal of the troops marked the end of the reconstruction period and was the beginning of better days for the South. The carpet bag governments were now speedily overthrown, and the Southern people again assumed control of their own affairs.

With the removal of the troops in 1877 the feeling of bitterness between the North and the South began to pass away. In September, 1877, President Hayes made a trip through the South and was kindly received. Leaders of the Confederacy also were kindly received in the North. In the cemeteries, North and South, flowers began to be placed upon the graves of both Union and Confederate soldiers. The kindly feeling between the two sections has gone on increasing year by year, and to-day it may be truly said that the wounds caused by the war have been entirely healed and that the South and the North are bound together more firmly than they were at any time before the war.

QUESTIONS ON THE TEXT

1. Give an account of the death of Lincoln. Give a sketch of the life and character of Andrew Johnson.
2. In the work of reconstruction what was done with those who had taken up arms against the Union? What was the Thirteenth Amendment? What was the Freedmen's Bureau? The Civil Rights Bill? The Fourteenth Amendment? The Fifteenth Amendment? With what conditions did the seceded States have to comply before they were restored to the Union?
3. Why was Johnson impeached? What was the result of his impeachment?
4. Why did the French withdraw from Mexico just after the Civil War? When and at what price was Alaska purchased?
5. Give an account of the presidential elections of 1868 and of 1872.
6. Who were the carpet-baggers? Give an account of the carpet-bag government. What was the Ku-Klux Klan?
7. Give an account of the Chicago fire. Of the panic of 1873. Of the Centennial Exposition.
8. Give an account of the presidential election of 1876. What was the Electoral Commission?
9. What effect did the final withdrawal of the troops from the South have upon the South and upon the country?

REVIEW AND READING REFERENCES

1. Dates: 1664, 1682 (2), 1789, 1837, 1861 (2), 1862 (2), 1863 (2), 1864, 1865.
2. Places: Detroit, Charleston, Fort Donelson, Chancellorsville, Gettysburg, Atlanta, Appomattox.

3. Persons: Stuyvesant, Roger Williams, Boone, Cass, McClellan, Grant, Lee, Sherman.

4. Tell what you can about: the Line of Demarcation; the beginning of political parties; Jay's treaty; the early history of Louisiana; the Frontier Line in 1820; in 1840; the settlement of Michigan; the settlement of Iowa; the battle of Manassas; the capture of Mason and Slidell; the capture of Fort Donelson; the *Merrimac* and the *Monitor*; the battle of Chancellorsville; the battle of Gettysburg; the fall of Vicksburg; Sherman's March to the Sea; Grant's campaign against Lee.

5. Topics: Reconstruction: 15 (Vol. II), 148-182. The impeachment of Andrew Johnson: 15 (Vol. II), 183-214. Condition of the South in 1865: 3, 336-339. Lee's advice to the South: 3, 342-344. Centennial Hymn: 14, 574.

XLII

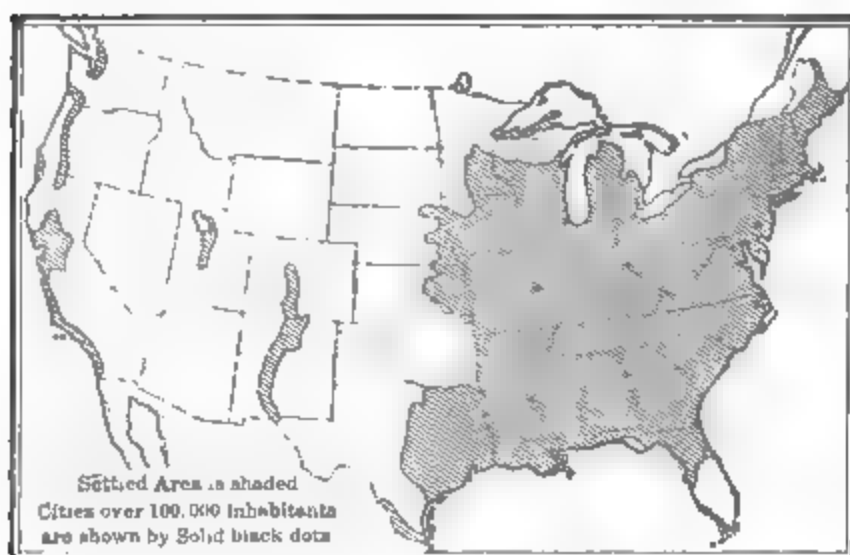
THE NEW WEST

The desert shall rejoice, and blossom as the rose. . . . For in the wilderness shall waters break out, and streams in the desert. And the parched ground shall become a pool, and the thirsty land springs of water. Isaiah xxxv, parts of verses 1, 6, and 7.

Introduction.—In previous chapters the story of the Westward Movement was carried forward to the beginning of the Civil War. During the war the development of the West was checked, but as soon as the struggle was over the tide of population began to flow westward again. At the close of the war there was west of the Mississippi a wild, uncultivated, and, for the most part, uninhabited region more than a million square miles in extent. Out of this vast region there have been carved ten States, whose combined population is now (1910) greater than the population of the entire United States a hundred years ago. These ten States, admitted since the war, constitute what may be called the New West, the development of which is the subject of this chapter.¹

264. Congress Encourages the Development of the New West.—The rapid growth of the New West has been due in large measure to certain laws enacted by Congress during the Civil War. In 1862 Congress passed the Homestead Act, which lowered the price of public lands. We saw (p. 262) that in 1841 the price of these lands was lowered from \$2 to \$1.25 an acre. The Homestead Act practically gave the settlers their land free of cost. Under this kind provision of this famous law

¹ In 1864 Nevada was admitted into the Union. This State was originally a part of California. Its development was due to the discovery of the great Comstock silver-mines. Many of the first settlers of Nevada came from California.

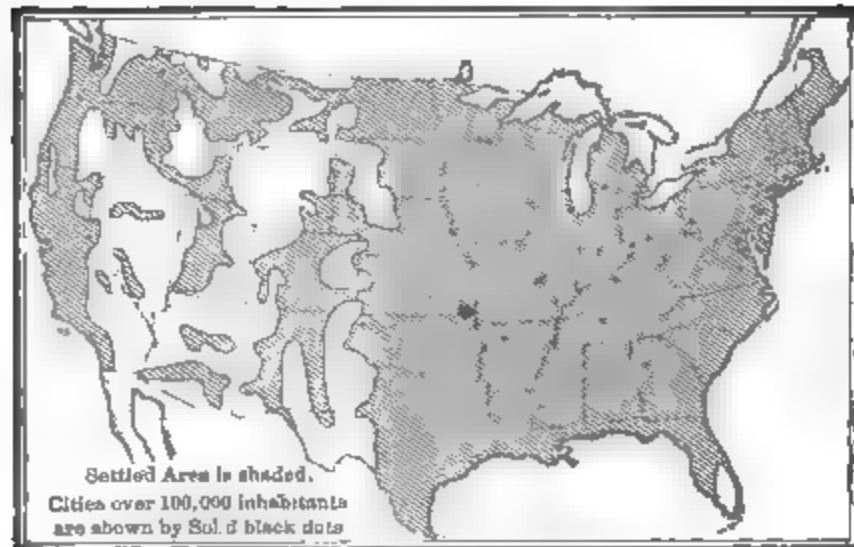


Settled area in 1860.

any head of a family, whether native or foreign-born, could, by the payment of a small fee, become the owner of 80 or 160 acres of land simply by living upon the land for five years and cultivating it. In 1862, also, Congress gave charters to several companies for building great railroads across the continent, and granted to the companies vast tracts of land lying along the routes which the railroads were to take. In 1864 Congress further encouraged the development of the West by passing an immigration law which exempted immigrants from military service and which provided means for assisting newly arrived foreigners to reach their destinations with as little trouble and expense as possible.

The effect of these laws in the building up of the West was remarkable. Under the workings of the Homestead Act millions and millions of acres of wild lands beyond the Mississippi were brought under cultivation, and thousands upon thousands of poor settlers became the prosperous owners of farms. The laws chartering the railroads led to the construction of three great highways across the plains and over the Rockies to the Pacific. The law encouraging immigration caused foreigners to come to America in numbers greater than had ever before been known.

265. Along the Union Pacific: Nebraska; Colorado; Wyoming; Utah.—The first of the transcontinental railroads to



Settled area in 1910.

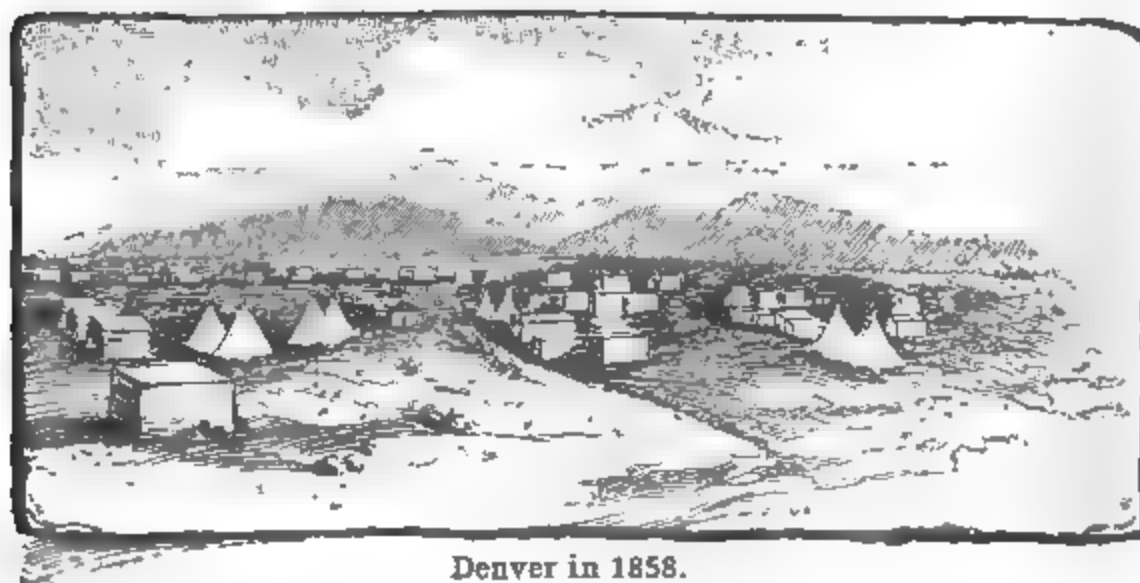
be built was the Union Pacific. To encourage the building of the road Congress gave the companies constructing it (1) a right of way through the public domain; (2) twenty sections of land—12,800 acres—along each mile of road; (3) a loan from the government varying from \$16,000 to \$48,000 per mile. The road was built by two companies, one of which worked from Omaha westward and the other from Sacramento eastward. The two lines met at Ogden, Utah, May 10, 1869, where two men with silver hammers drove the last spikes, two of gold and two of silver, into the last tie.

Nebraska. The great benefits of the Union Pacific were first felt in Nebraska. The region which is now Nebraska was for many years neglected by Congress and was left without a government of any kind. The only law was "club law." In 1854 Stephen A. Douglas carried through Congress his famous Kansas-Nebraska Bill (p. 288), which made Nebraska a Territory. In 1855 the first legislature met at Omaha, the capital of the Territory. As early as 1859 the Nebraskans began to urge their claims for admission into the Union, and during the Civil War they tried to secure the boon of statehood, but without success. When the war was over, the struggle for admission was renewed, and in 1867 Nebraska was made a State. Lincoln was chosen as the capital.

With the completion of the Union Pacific Railroad Nebraska

was connected with the markets of the world, and her development proceeded at a rapid pace. By 1880 she had a population of nearly 500,000 and was taking her place as one of the great grain-growing States of the Union.

Colorado also soon felt the benefits of the Union Pacific. The early development of Colorado, like the development of most of the Rocky Mountain States, was due to the discovery of valuable mines of precious metals. In 1859 a rich gold-mine was discovered in the Pike's Peak country, and forthwith there was a wild rush to the scene. "Pike's Peak or bust" became the motto of fortune-seekers in all parts of the country. It was estimated that within a year nearly 60,000 gold-seekers visited the newly discovered mines. Thousands of these "fifty-niners," remained and laid the foundations of Colorado. Mining-towns such as Denver, Boulder, and Pueblo were built so rapidly that they seemed to rise out of the ground overnight. The miners felt the need of law and order, and at once organized a new government under the name of the Territory of Jefferson. In 1861, however, Congress organized the Territory of Colorado, and the Territory of Jefferson passed out of existence. In 1870 Denver was connected by a railroad with the Union Pacific system. Six years later Colorado was admitted into the

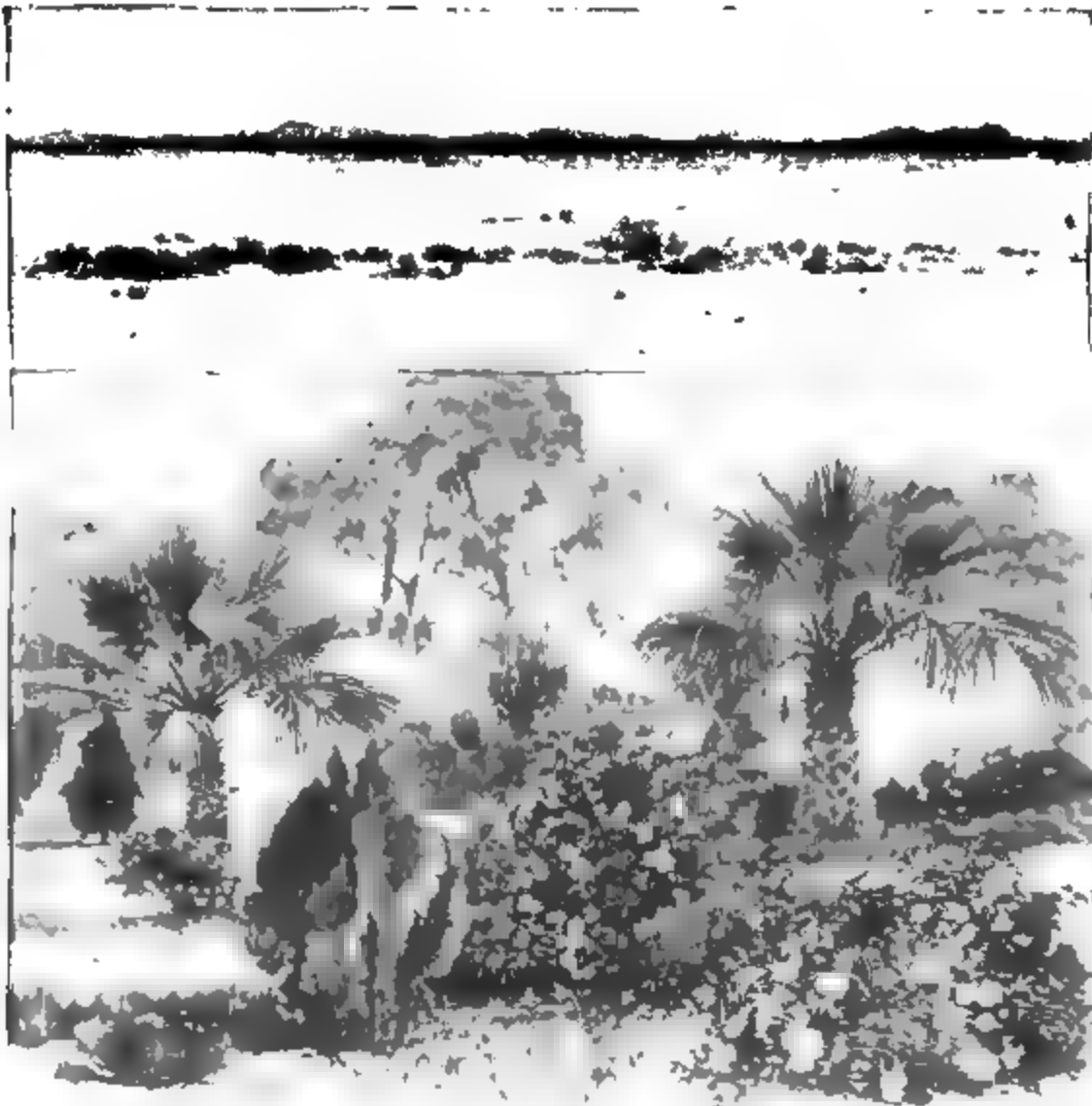


Denver in 1858.

Union as the "Centennial State." When it was admitted nearly all its wealth was in its mines. In recent years, however, the

people of Colorado have learned the value of irrigation and have watered by artificial means millions of acres of arid land, and the products of these irrigated lands equal in value the products of the mines.

Wyoming practically owes its existence to a railroad. In 1867 the Union Pacific laid out the town of Cheyenne, and the



The desert before and after irrigation.

next year the Territory of Wyoming was created by Congress. Wyoming is an extremely dry and mountainous region, and its growth has been slow. Still, the railroad brought many settlers to Wyoming, and by 1890 the Territory had a population large enough for statehood and was admitted as a State.

Utah was also greatly benefited by the building of the Union



A railway on a trestle over the Great Salt Lake.

This remarkable feat of engineering, known as the "Lucin Cut-off," enables the Southern Pacific Railroad Co. (lessees of the Central Pacific Railroad) to make a straight course over twelve miles of water.

Pacific, but its admission into the Union came late. As a Territory (p. 274) it sought admission as early as 1854, but without success. After the Civil War the Territory again applied for admission, but was again refused. The Mormons permitted the custom of polygamy, and Congress was unwilling to admit Utah as long as this custom was allowed. After many years of waiting, however, and after polygamy had been abolished, Utah was at last admitted (in 1896).

266. Along the Northern Pacific Railroad and the Upper Missouri River: the New Northwest—the Dakotas, Montana, Idaho, and Washington.—Just as it was the discovery of gold that hastened the growth of California and Colorado, so it was the discovery of gold that hastened the growth of the New Northwest, the region extending westward from Minnesota to the Pacific and including the States of North Dakota, South Dakota, Montana, Idaho, and Washington.

In the spring of 1863 a rich deposit of gold was found at the head waters of the Missouri, in what is now southwestern Montana, and at once fortune-hunters began to rush to the scene. Those who went from the East made the greater part of the long journey by steamboats which ran from St. Louis to Fort

Benton, the head of navigation on the Upper Missouri. Trade on this river took on new life after the discovery of the gold-fields, and the profits of the steamboats were enormous. The fare of a cabin passenger from St. Louis to Fort Benton was



Fort Benton in 1853.

Fort Benton is at the head of navigation on the Missouri River.

\$300, while the freight rate was 12 cents a pound. The salary of pilots was sometimes as much as \$1200 a month. Of course civilization followed the steamboat. In the wilderness along the banks of the Upper Missouri, where nothing dwelt except wild animals and fierce Indians, towns were built and fields were brought under cultivation. Yankton, Pierre, and Bismarck became thriving centers of trade. Civilization also made its way quickly to the newly found gold-fields, and within a few years Virginia City and Helena were prosperous cities.

The steamboat did much to open up the New Northwest, but the railroad did vastly more. In 1864 Congress chartered the Northern Pacific Railroad, which was to connect Duluth, on Lake Superior, with Portland, Oregon, and with Tacoma and Seattle, on Puget Sound, and by 1876 the road had been built westward as far as Bismarck.

This coming of the white man into the country of the Upper

Missouri was bitterly resented by the Indians. The national government was following the policy of allotting to the Indian tribes certain tracts of lands known as "reservations," on which the red men alone might live. But the Indians would not remain on their reservations, and they often murdered white settlers. They were especially troublesome to the workmen who were building the Northern Pacific. In 1876 United States troops were sent against the Indians to subdue them and bring them to terms. Before they were subdued, however, they dealt our troops a terrible blow. A large force of Sioux Indians in southern Montana suddenly surrounded a division of 260 men under General George Custer and killed every man, including the brave Custer himself. It was a horrible massacre, but the task of subduing the Indians was continued, and in a few years the white man was the undisputed master of the entire Northwest.

In 1883 the Northern Pacific Railroad was completed. The building of this road, with its branches, was like causing a navigable river with many tributaries to flow through the land, for the road was a mighty channel of trade on which the products of the Northwest could start on their journey to all parts

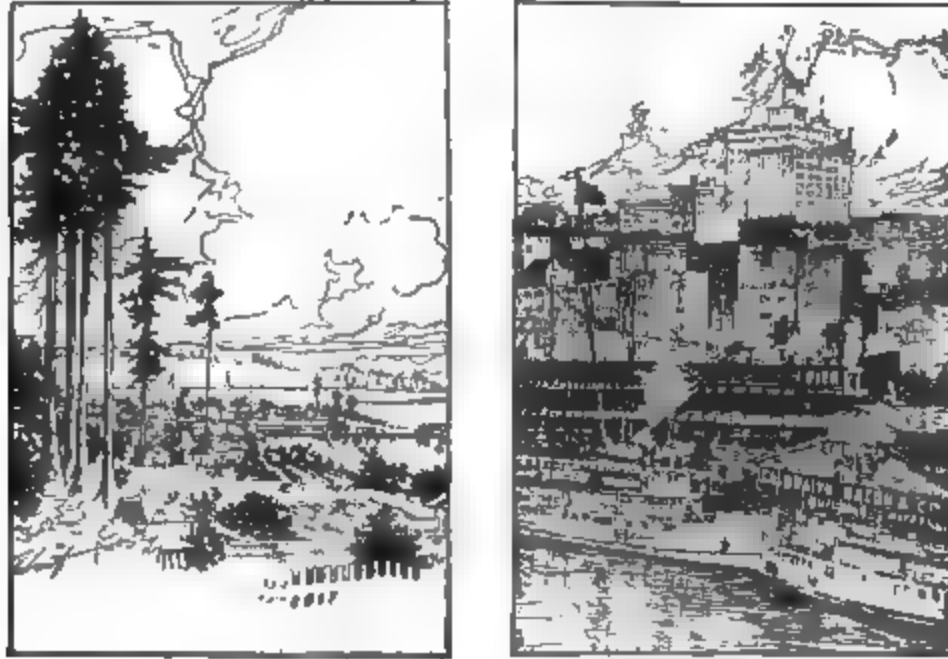


The first public school building
in South Dakota.

of the world. All sections of the country through which the new road passed felt its benefits immediately, and within seven years after the completion of the great highway five States were organized in the Northwest. The Dakotas came into the Union on the same day (November 2, 1889). In less than a week afterward Montana was admitted (November 8, 1889), and three days after the admission of Montana the Territory of Washington became a

State. Washington had been organized as a Territory in 1853, but its growth had been slow. In 1870 its population was only a little more than 20,000, but when the railroad had con-

nected Puget Sound with the Great Lakes, Washington began to grow at a startling rate. In a few years its population jumped from a hundred thousand to half a million. Ta-



Seattle in 1879 and in 1910.

coma was transformed from a village in 1880 to a city of 36,000 in 1890, and the growth of Seattle and Spokane was even more wonderful. The political development of the New Northwest was completed July 8, 1890, when Idaho was admitted as a State.¹

Nothing in the history of the Westward Movement is more remarkable than the rapid growth of the New Northwest. Men not yet very old can tell you of the time when they traveled through this region on horseback for days at a time and did not see a single human being; yet to-day the country is fully organized into flourishing States. And the development of the Northwest has only fairly begun. The Dakotas, with their broad bonanza farms, already hold high rank as wheat-growing States, yet their yield of grain is growing larger and larger all the time. Montana, which is as large as Pennsylvania, Ohio, and Illinois combined, has more sheep on its hills than any other State in the Union. The grazing area of Montana is as large

¹ Five of the States of the New West—Idaho, Wyoming, Utah, Colorado, and Washington—have granted equal suffrage to men and women.

as Illinois, its mining area is as large as Ohio, and its farming area is as large as Pennsylvania. Idaho is rich in its mines and forests and is rapidly pushing to the front as a wool-growing State. Washington is already a rich and populous State, yet its great commercial advantages and its natural resources, its forests and mines and grazing-lands, will make it far richer and

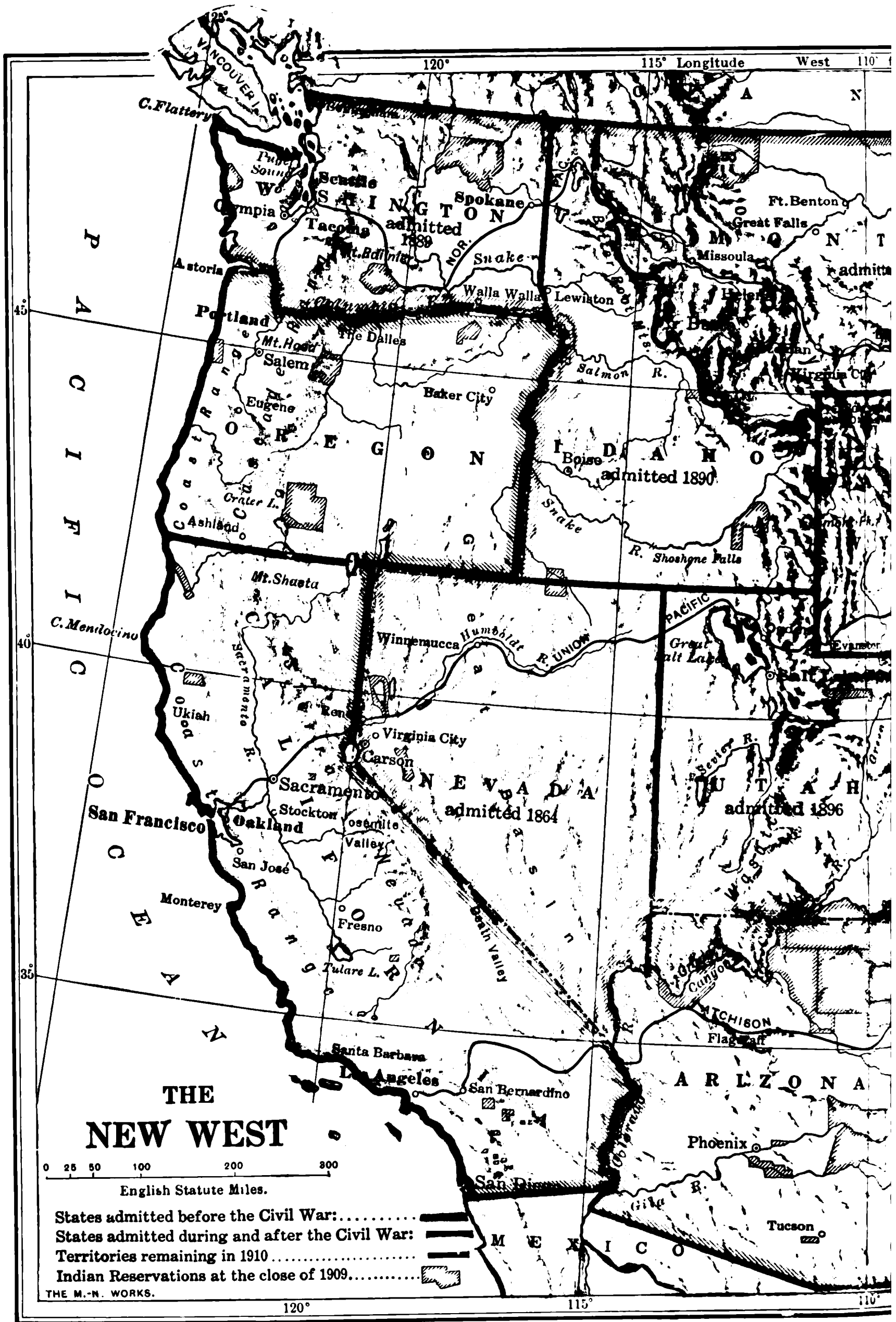


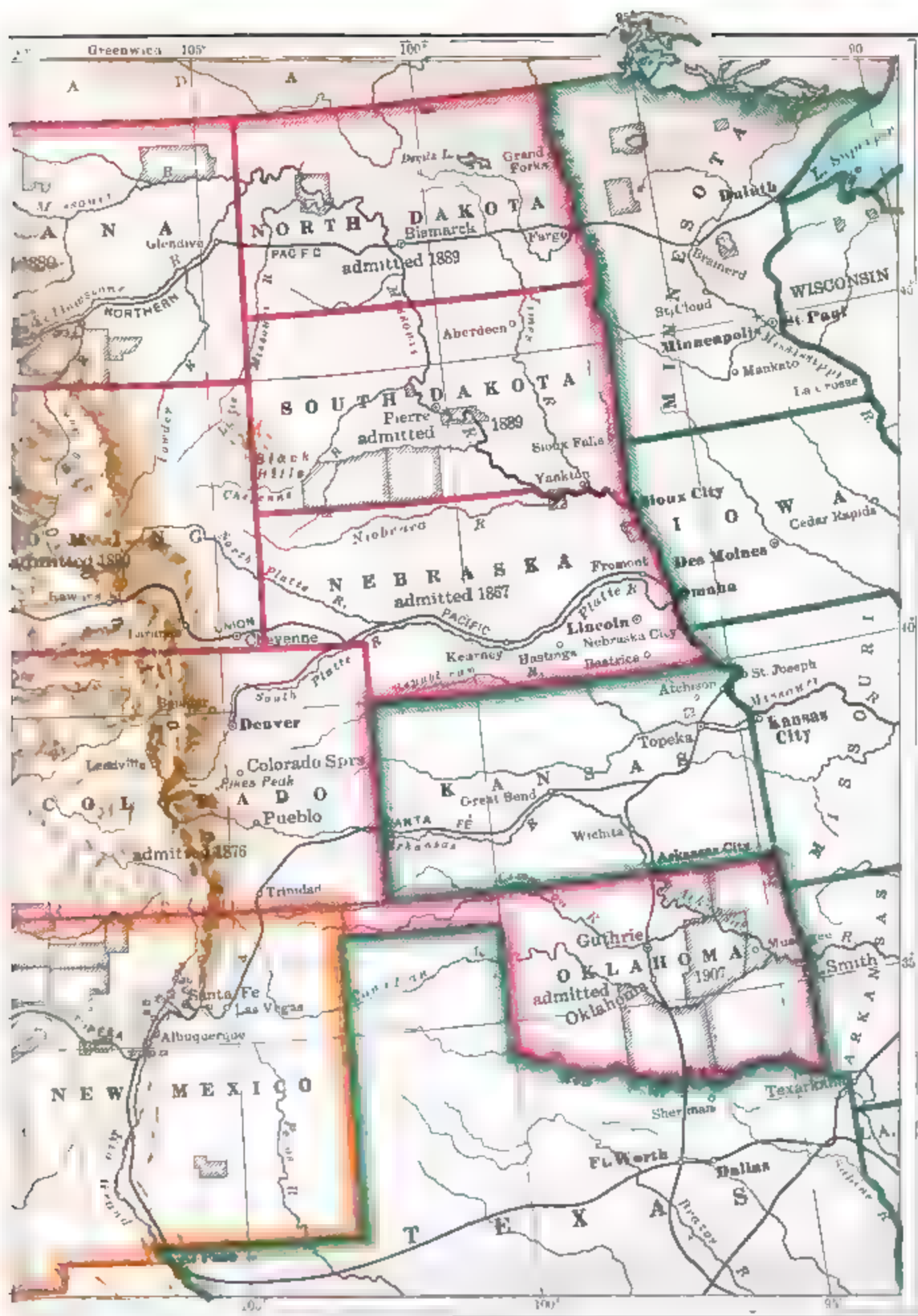
A great farm in the New Northwest.
All the land is cultivated, even the hillsides.

more populous than it now is. The prosperity and greatness of the New Northwest were brought forcibly to the attention of the world by the Alaska-Yukon Exposition, which was held at Seattle in 1909.

267. The New Southwest: (Western Texas) Oklahoma, Arizona, New Mexico.—While the Union Pacific was opening up the Central West and the Northern Pacific the New Northwest, another great line (the Atchison, Topeka and Santa Fé) was opening up the New Southwest—western Texas, Oklahoma, Arizona, and New Mexico. By 1880 one could travel by rail from Kansas City to Santa Fé, and three years later the journey could be continued on to Los Angeles. Here was a third great iron highway extending across the continent and bearing the burdens of travel and trade.

From the main line of the Santa Fé connecting roads were





built southward, and these hastened the development of northern and western Texas. In 1883 a branch of the Santa Fé reached El Paso, which was soon connected with the Gulf ports by the Texas and Pacific. The immense vacant areas of the Lone Star State now began to fill up with people. San Antonio, Fort Worth, and Dallas soon became important inland centers of trade, while Galveston and Houston took their places among the great exporting cities of the United States.

The building of the Santa Fé also hastened the development of the Oklahoma country, the region which was given to the Indians when they were moved from their homes east of the Mississippi (p. 247), and which for a long time was known as the "Indian Territory." With the coming of the railroad many palefaces found their way into the red man's country. Piece by piece the Indians gave up their lands, and it was not long before a large part of the Indian country was in possession of white men. In 1890 the western portion of the so-called Indian Territory was erected into a real Territory and given the name of Oklahoma. Great tracts of public lands were now thrown open to settlers, and the rush to Oklahoma was one of the wildest in the whole history of the Westward Movement. The chief object of the race was to secure land. Sometimes men would jump from the windows of rapidly moving trains and scamper across the country in order to be the first to reach and lay claim to some desirable tract. After 1890 both Indian Territory and Oklahoma Territory made astonishing strides in wealth and population, and in 1907 the two territories joined hands of their own accord and entered the Union as the State of Oklahoma. Guthrie was made the capital of the new State, although Oklahoma City was the larger place.



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Railway over Cañon Diablo, Arizona.



An Oklahoma oil-well.

Two Territories of the New West remain to be admitted. These are New Mexico and Arizona. These Territories have a population large enough for statehood, and the day seems near at hand when they, too, will join the Union. Their admission will mark the last event in the great Westward Movement.¹

¹ In some of the States of the New West, as in South Dakota, Montana, Oklahoma, and Colorado, the people engage personally and directly in the business of making laws. They do this by means of a political device known as the *initiative and referendum*. The initiative enables a certain per cent. of the voters to propose to the legislature a bill which that body must enact as a law; the referendum enables the voters to vote upon a law which they have commanded the legislature to refer to them. This system of direct legislation is also in operation in Nevada, Missouri, Maine, Oregon, and Arkansas.

QUESTIONS ON THE TEXT

1. In what three ways did Congress encourage the development of the New West?
2. Give an account of the building of the Northern Pacific Railroad. What was the early history of Nebraska? Of Colorado? Of Wyoming? When and under what circumstances was Utah admitted into the Union?
3. What hastened the development of the New Northwest? What part did the steamboat play in the development of this region? What Indian troubles occurred during the development of the New Northwest? Give an account of the growth of the New Northwest after the building of the Northern Pacific Railroad. Describe the nature and extent of the resources of the New Northwest.

4. What part of the United States was opened up by the Atchison, Topeka and Santa Fé Railroad?
5. Give an account of the development of northern and western Texas. Of Oklahoma. Of Arizona and New Mexico.

REVIEW AND READING REFERENCES

1. Dates: 1787 (2), 1825, 1832, 1863 (2), 1864, 1865 (2), 1877.
2. Places: Palos, Jamestown, Fort Duquesne, Watauga, Gettysburg, Atlanta, Appomattox.
3. Persons: De Soto, Raleigh, Champlain, Marquette, La Salle, Whitney, Calhoun, Clay, Webster, Fillmore, Morse, Sherman, Johnson.
4. Tell what you can about: the settlement of Kentucky; the settlement of Tennessee; Whitney's cotton-gin; the spoils system; nullification; the Compromise of 1850; the secession of the Confederate States; the firing upon Fort Sumter; the battle of Gettysburg; the fall of Vicksburg; Sherman's March to the Sea; Grant's campaign against Lee; the work of reconstruction; the Electoral Commission; the merit system; the Interstate Commerce Commission; the Anti-Trust Law; the election of 1896; the war with Spain; the Panama Canal; the Rate Law of 1906.
5. Hints for reading: *The Last American Frontier*, by F. L. Paxson. *The Conquest of the Missouri*, by J. M. Hanson. *The Making of Colorado*, by Eugene Parsons.

XLIII

A UNITED PEOPLE

One flag, one land, one heart, one hand,
One nation, evermore.

Oliver Wendell Holmes.

THE ADMINISTRATIONS OF JAMES A. GARFIELD AND CHESTER A. ARTHUR (1881-85)

268. The Presidential Election of 1880.—In the presidential election of 1880 the Republicans nominated James A. Garfield of Ohio for President and Chester A. Arthur of New York for Vice-President. The Democrats nominated Winfield Scott Hancock. The Greenback-Labor party nominated James B. Weaver of Iowa. The Prohibition party nominated Neal Dow of Maine.



James A. Garfield.

Born in Ohio, in 1831; served in the Union army during the Civil War, becoming major-general; member of Congress and of the Senate, became twentieth President in 1881; was shot on July 2, 1881, and died September 19 following.

In the campaign of 1880 there was no bitterness displayed between the North and the South and no agitation of sectional questions. For the first time in a generation Americans talked and acted as if they were really a united people. Garfield received the majority of the electoral votes, although Hancock polled a popular vote almost as large as that of his successful rival.

269. The Death of Garfield; President Arthur.—President Garfield had hardly entered upon his duties as President when he was made the victim of an assassin's bullet. On July 2, 1881, while in

the railroad station at Washington, he was shot in the back by a disappointed office-seeker. The wounded President made a

brave fight for his life, but he slowly succumbed, and on September 19 he passed away.

On the day after Garfield's death Vice-President Arthur, at his home in New York, took the oath of office as President. Little was known of the character of the new President or of his fitness for his great duties, and there were some fears lest he might not prove to be the right man in the right place. These fears, however, were groundless, for President Arthur performed the duties of his office in a conscientious manner and with ability and dignity.

270. The Merit System.—It will be remembered that Jackson set the example of rewarding his political friends by giving them offices without regard to fitness. The example of Jackson was quite faithfully followed by the Presidents who came after him, and it soon became a fixed custom for a new administration to turn out the old office-holders and appoint new ones in their places. Grant did not like the custom. "The present system," he said, "does not secure the best men, and often not even fit men, for public places." To remedy the evils of the "spoils system," Congress, in 1883, passed a law which provided for a *Civil Service Commission*, whose chief duty was to hold examinations and ascertain which applicants were best fitted for office. Those who passed the best examinations were to receive the appointments. Under this law the spoils system has in a large measure been abandoned and the merit system established. As a rule the lower officials and the clerks and other employees of the national government are now allowed to keep their places as long as they behave themselves properly and perform their duties well.



Chester A. Arthur.

Born in Vermont, in 1830; was collector of the port of New York, 1871-78; became Vice-President in 1880, and upon the death of Garfield succeeded him as twenty-first President, 1881-85; died in 1886.

THE FIRST ADMINISTRATION OF GROVER CLEVELAND
(1885-89)

271. The Election of 1884.—In 1884 the Republicans nominated James G. Blaine of Maine for President. The Democratic candidate was Grover Cleveland of New York. The People's party, which had combined with the Greenback party, nominated Benjamin F. Butler of Massachusetts and adopted a platform advocating the control of railroads by the government and the issuing of money based on the faith of the government. The Prohibition party nominated John P. St. John of Kansas.

The election of 1884 was a hard-fought battle. Blaine was one of the ablest and most brilliant men of his time and was a great favorite with the people. Cleveland was not so well known as his Republican rival, but as the mayor of Buffalo and governor of New York he had won for himself a reputation for



Grover Cleveland.

Born at Caldwell, New Jersey, in 1837, mayor of Buffalo in 1882, governor of New York, 1883-84, President of the United States, 1885-89 and 1893-97; died in 1908.

industry, honesty, and courage. The campaign cry of the Democrats was tariff reform. During the war the duties on imports had been placed very high (p. 359), and the Democratic party in the campaign of 1884 contended that they ought to be lowered. The voters were of the same opinion, and Cleveland was elected.

272. Presidential Succession; the Interstate Commerce Act.—An important measure of Cleveland's administration was the Presidential Succession Act of 1886. This law provides that if for any reason neither the President nor the Vice-President can discharge the duties of the presidential office, members of

the President's cabinet shall succeed to the Presidency in the following order: (1) The Secretary of State, (2) the Secretary of the Treasury, (3) the Secretary of War, (4) the Attorney-

General, (5) the Postmaster-General, (6) the Secretary of the Navy, (7) the Secretary of the Interior. The one succeeding to the Presidency serves during the remainder of the four years. Under this law it would hardly be possible for the country to be without a President for a single day.

Another great measure of Cleveland's administration was the Interstate Commerce Act of 1887. The purpose of this law is to regulate trade between the States.¹ It requires that in the matter of freight and passenger rates all persons and places shall be treated fairly; that convenient arrangements shall be made for the interchange of traffic between connecting railroads; that free passes between places situated in different States shall not be given; that railroads shall print and make public their freight and passenger rates. As an agency for carrying out the purposes of this law Congress created the Interstate Commerce Commission, consisting of five (now seven) members.

THE ADMINISTRATION OF BENJAMIN HARRISON (1889-93)

273. The Campaign of 1888.—In 1888 the Democrats renominated Cleveland. The Republicans nominated Benjamin Harrison of Indiana. The great issue of the campaign was the tariff. The Democrats had failed during Cleveland's first administration to lower the tariff rates, because their efforts had been blocked by a Republican Senate. In 1888, however, they still promised a reduction in the rates if the voters would keep them in power. The Republicans defended the high tariff, claiming that it resulted in better wages for the working-man and in greater profits for the American manufacturer. Harrison received a majority of the electoral votes, although Cleveland received a larger popular vote than his opponent.

274. The McKinley Tariff; the Anti-Trust Law; the Sherman Silver Purchase Act.—The Republicans, having won the election on the tariff issue, promptly came forward with a tariff measure which raised the duties on imports higher than they

¹ Trade between places situated within the same State is controlled by the State government, not by the national government.

had ever been before. This law, known as the McKinley Bill,¹ was passed in 1890. As soon as it was passed the prices of many articles of every-day use began to rise, and inasmuch as wages did not rise with prices, the new law was blamed for causing hardship and was very unpopular.

Another law passed in 1890 was the Anti-Trust Act. About 1880 combinations of business corporations, such as coal com-



Benjamin Harrison.

Born in Ohio, in 1833; grandson of President W. H. Harrison; studied law; served in the Civil War, member of United States Senate; twenty-third President, 1889-93; died in 1901.

panies, steel companies, oil companies, and sugar-refining companies, began to be made on a large scale. Several companies engaged in the same business would combine as one company (now popularly called a trust), or would agree upon the prices to be charged for their goods and upon the amount of goods that each separate company was to produce and sell. The principal object of all such combinations was to regulate and, as far as possible, to suppress competition. Many of the combinations called trusts grew very rapidly, and became so large that they were regarded as being dangerous to the public from their power to drive smaller concerns out of business and fix prices. So in 1890 Congress passed an anti-trust law declaring that combinations and conspiracies in restraint of trade were unlawful and were punishable by fine and imprisonment.

A third important measure of Harrison's administration was the Sherman Silver Purchase Act. From the foundation of our government up to 1873 the coining of silver had been free. Any one who had silver bullion (uncoined silver) could take it to one of our mints and have it coined into silver dollars. The coinage of gold during this time was also free. From 1834 to 1873 the ratio between silver and gold was 16 to 1; that is, the

¹ Tariff bills are usually named after the chairman of the Committee on Ways and Means of the House of Representatives.

silver dollar was practically sixteen times as heavy as the gold dollar. In 1873 Congress discontinued the free coinage of silver and made gold the unit of value, leaving the coinage of gold free as before. In 1878 there was a demand for the coinage of silver, and in that year the Bland-Allison Act provided that our government should buy not less than two million dollars' worth and not more than four million dollars' worth of silver bullion each month and coin it into silver dollars. The law continued in force for twelve years, and under its workings nearly \$400,000,000 in silver were coined. In 1890 the Bland-Allison Act was repealed and a law known as the Sherman Act was passed. Under this law the government was to purchase each month 4,500,000 ounces of silver at the market price, and pay for the silver with treasury notes which could be presented by the holder to the Secretary of the Treasury, and be redeemed either in silver or gold as the secretary might decide.

THE SECOND ADMINISTRATION OF GROVER CLEVELAND (1893-97)

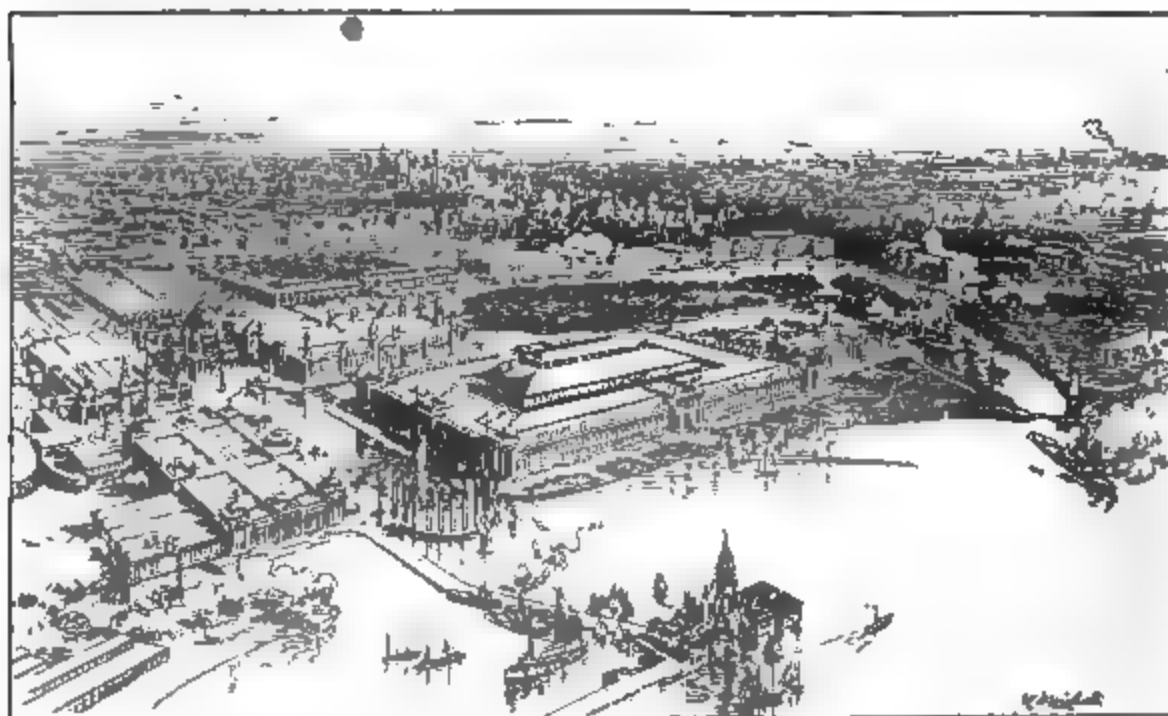
275. The Election of 1892.—In 1892 the Republicans renominated Harrison. The Democrats for the third time nominated Cleveland and promised a repeal of the McKinley Tariff Law. The main issue of the campaign, therefore, was the tariff, and on this issue the Democrats swept the country, electing not only their candidate for President, but gaining possession also of both branches of Congress.

276. The Repeal of the Purchase Clause of the Sherman Act.—Before the Democrats in Congress took up the tariff question they were called upon to deal with the silver question. We saw that in 1890 the government under the Sherman Act began to buy silver and pay for it in treasury notes. By 1893 these notes amounted to \$150,000,000, and in the opinion of many leading financiers their issue was becoming a source of danger to the business world. President Cleveland regarded them as dangerous and soon after his inauguration called a special session of Congress to consider the repeal of the Sherman Act. After three months of stormy debate in Congress

the purchasing clause of the Sherman Act was repealed (October, 1893).

277. The Wilson Tariff; the Income Tax.—In December, 1893, the Democrats in Congress came forward with a bill—the Wilson Bill—to reduce the tariff in accordance with the pledges made during the campaign, and after a debate which lasted far into the summer of 1894 the bill became a law (August, 1894). The Wilson Tariff did not disturb the existing rates to any great extent. Still it was expected that under its working the revenue of the government would be reduced, and in order to provide sufficient revenue Congress levied a tax on incomes of over four thousand dollars. This Income Tax, however, was declared by the Supreme Court of the United States to be contrary to the Constitution, and it was not collected.

278. The World's Columbian Exposition.—In May, 1893, President Cleveland opened at Chicago the World's Columbian



The World's Fair buildings, Chicago.

Exposition, held to commemorate the four-hundredth anniversary of the discovery of America by Christopher Columbus.¹ This Exposition was conducted on a grander scale than any of

¹ The Exposition was officially opened in October, 1892, but it was not opened to the public until May, 1893.

the World's Fairs that had yet been held. Its buildings occupied 660 acres of ground. The largest building, the one devoted to manufactures and liberal arts, covered 25 acres. The total cost of the Exposition was nearly \$40,000,000. The number of paid admissions was over 22,000,000.

279. The Chicago Riots.—The Exposition at Chicago had hardly been closed before the city became the scene of a great industrial conflict. In 1894 the wages of the employees of the Pullman Car Company (located near Chicago) were reduced, and there was a strike. The employees of the many railroads centering in Chicago were in sympathy with the strikers and refused to handle Pullman cars. Mobs gathered in the freight-yards, and hundreds of cars were burned. The mails of the United States were obstructed, and in order to protect the mails President Cleveland sent regular troops to Chicago. Shortly after the arrival of the troops the rioting ceased and the strike came to an end.

280. The Venezuela Boundary Dispute.—In 1895 it seemed that Great Britain was about to extend the western boundary of British Guiana and thus encroach upon the territory of Venezuela. This was contrary to the Monroe Doctrine (p. 225), and President Cleveland in a message to Congress hinted strongly that if Great Britain extended her boundaries farther than was agreeable to the United States the act would be regarded as unfriendly. The message was a plain threat, and there was talk of war. The affair, however, soon blew over, and the boundary dispute was finally settled (1899) by a treaty of arbitration.

QUESTIONS ON THE TEXT

1. Give an account of the presidential election of 1880.
2. Describe the assassination of Garfield. What can you say of his successor?
3. When and why was the Civil Service Commission established?
4. Give an account of the campaign of 1884 and state its results.
5. Explain the Presidential Succession Act. For what purpose was the Interstate Commerce Act passed? What are the provisions of this act?
6. Give an account of the presidential election of 1888.

7. What was the purpose and effect of the McKinley Tariff? What led to the passage of the Anti-Trust Act? What led to the passage of the Sherman Silver Purchase Act?
8. Give an account of the presidential election of 1892.
9. Why was the purchasing clause of the Sherman Act repealed?
10. Give an account of the Wilson Tariff and of the Income Tax.
11. Describe the World's Columbian Exposition.
12. Give an account of the Chicago riots.
13. In what form did the Monroe Doctrine present itself in 1895?

REVIEW AND READING REFERENCES

1. Dates: 1588, 1643, 1733, 1763, 1783, 1803, 1850.
2. Places: New Amsterdam, Fort Duquesne, Watauga, Marietta, Harper's Ferry, Gettysburg, Atlanta, Appomattox.
3. Persons: Cabot, Drake, Wolfe, Franklin, Braddock, Whitney, Burr, Cass, Douglas, McClellan, Grant, Lee, Sherman.
4. Tell what you can about: the voyage of Magellan; the Seven Cities of Cibola; the Plymouth Colony; the Albany Congress; the settlement of Kentucky; the Frontier Line in 1700; in 1740; in 1800; in 1820; in 1840; the Louisiana Purchase; Lewis and Clark expedition; the Kansas-Nebraska Bill; the invention of the telegraph.

XLIV

A UNITED PEOPLE (*Continued*)

Hark! from the heights the clear, strong, clarion call
And the command imperious: "Stand forth,
Sons of the South and brothers of the North!"

From Our Country, by Frank Lebby Stanton.

THE ADMINISTRATION OF WILLIAM McKINLEY (1897-1901)

281. The Presidential Election of 1896.—At the end of Cleveland's second administration the country was suffering from hard times and there was much discontent. The Republicans blamed the Democratic party for the hard times, claiming that the Wilson Bill had injured the manufacturing interests and brought on financial depression. So when the Republicans came to nominate a candidate for President they chose a high-tariff champion, William McKinley of Ohio. The Democrats contended that the hard times were due, not to the Wilson Bill, not to a low tariff, but to a scarcity of money, and they demanded that the government should coin at the ratio of 16 to 1 all the silver that might be brought to its mints, as it had been accustomed to do before 1873 (p. 392). They nominated as their candidate William Jennings Bryan of Nebraska. The People's party was in favor of free silver, so it also nominated Bryan.

The campaign of 1896 stirred the country to its depths. Bryan was little known at the time of his nomination, but he was an accomplished orator and proved to be a brilliant campaigner. "In fourteen weeks he made six hundred speeches, he traveled eighteen thou-



William McKinley.

Born in Ohio, in 1843, served in the Civil War, member of Congress; governor of Ohio; twenty-fifth President, 1897-1901; died in 1901.



William Jennings Bryan.

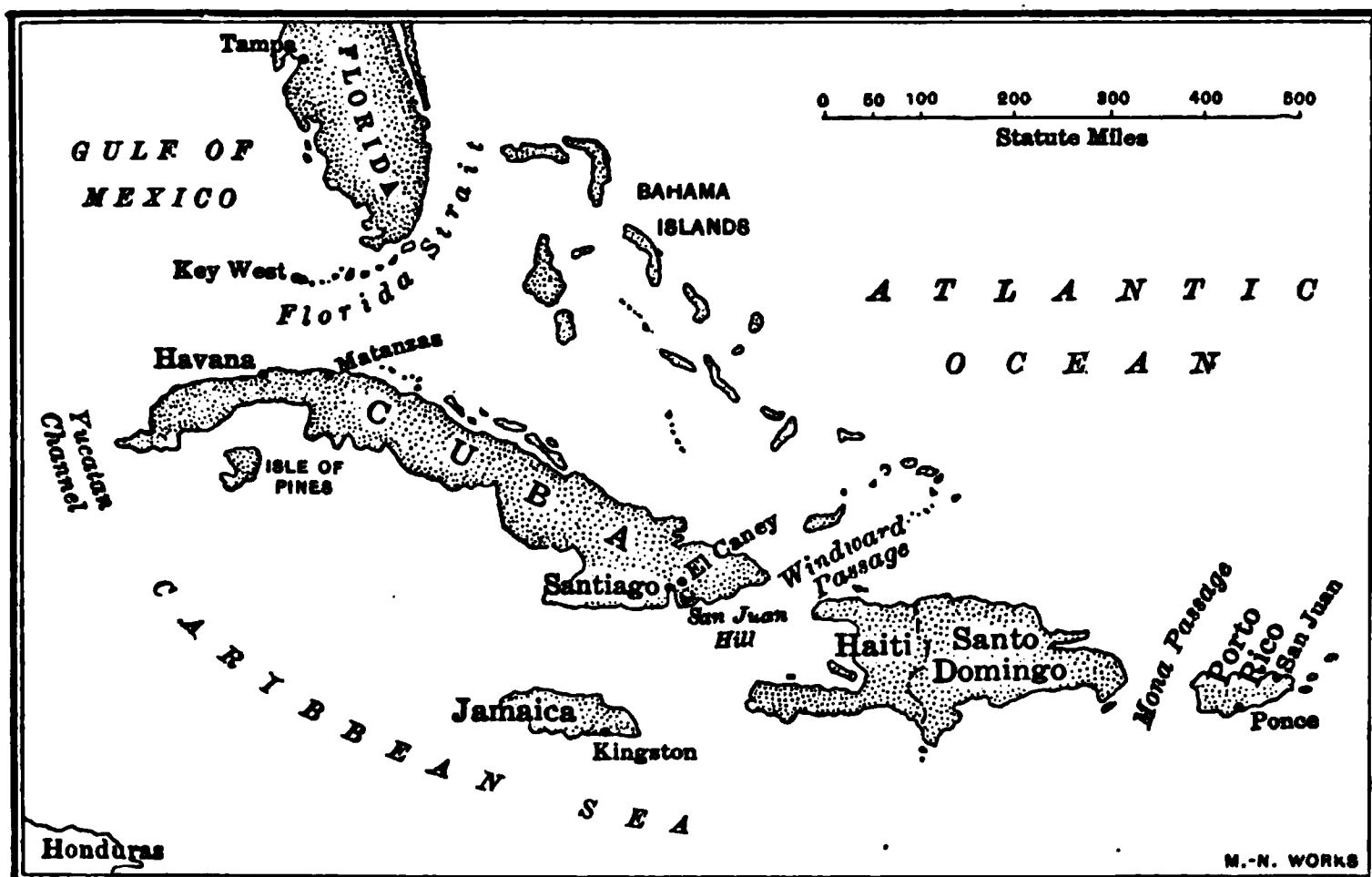
Born at Salem, Illinois, in 1860; member of Congress; three times the nominee of the Democratic party for the Presidency.

sand miles, and it is estimated that nearly five million persons came within the sound of his voice." When the bitter contest was over and the votes were counted, it was found that McKinley had received 271 electoral votes and that Bryan had received 176. Of the popular vote McKinley received 7,111,607, while Bryan received 6,502,600.

282. The War with Spain.—President McKinley soon after his inauguration called an extra session of Congress to deal with the tariff question and to raise revenue for the support of the government. In July the Dingley Tariff was passed and the Wilson Act repealed. The Dingley Law raised the duties even higher than they had been under the McKinley Tariff of 1890.

Congress had hardly finished with the tariff question before it was called upon to deal with a serious situation in Cuba. This island for a century had been an object of interest and concern to the people of the United States. Jefferson and John Quincy Adams thought we ought to own Cuba, and attempts were made from time to time during the nineteenth century to annex the island to this country. Spain, however, continued to hold Cuba long after she had lost most of her other foreign possessions. But Cuba was unhappy under Spanish rule and struggled hard to throw off the foreign yoke. The last Cuban rebellion began in 1895, and the measures taken by Spain to put down the rebellion were so cruel and bloody that the people of the United States felt that our government ought to interfere and stop the inhuman warfare. Our government did protest (June 1, 1897), and Spain promised that Cuba should have self-government. But the Cuban rebellion continued, nevertheless, and the relations between Spain and the United States grew worse and worse. In February, 1898, President McKinley

ordered the battle-ship *Maine* to Cuban waters, and the vessel, while lying in the harbor of Havana, was destroyed by an explosion. Two hundred and fifty sailors and officers lost their lives. Spain declared that she was in no way responsible for



The Spanish-American War in the West Indies.

the explosion. A board of naval officers after an examination reported that the *Maine* had been destroyed by the explosion of a submarine mine, but the board was unable to fix the responsibility upon any person or persons.

The people of the United States, whether justly or unjustly, blamed the Spaniards for the destruction of the *Maine* and clamored for war against Spain, and on April 24, 1898, war was officially declared by Congress. The President called for 125,000 volunteer troops, and the response came from all parts of the country. Soldiers who in the Civil War had worn the gray fought in the Spanish-American War side by side with those who had worn the blue.

The first battle of the war with Spain was a naval engagement. On May 1 Commodore (afterward Admiral) Dewey attacked a Spanish fleet which was stationed in Manila Bay, Philippine Islands, and after a battle lasting half a day ten

Spanish ships were sunk or destroyed and over six hundred Spanish sailors were killed or wounded. The Americans did



The Dewey medal.

Provided by act of Congress for those who took part in the battle of Manila Bay. A portrait of Admiral Dewey¹ is on one side.

not lose a single ship or a single man. Dewey was soon reinforced by land troops under General Merritt, and on August 13 the city of Manila was taken. Thus the Philippine Islands, which had been held by Spain from the days of Magellan, fell into the hands of the United States.

The fighting in Cuba took place near the city of Santiago. On May 19 a Spanish fleet under Admiral Cervera entered the harbor of this city, where they were blockaded by a strong American fleet under Admiral Sampson. On June 3 Lieutenant Hobson undertook to "bottle up" the Spanish fleet within the Santiago harbor. With several companions he conducted the coal-ship *Merrimac* to the narrowest place in the channel and there sank it. Hobson and his men were captured. In the meantime our land troops were gathering around Santiago, and on July 1 El Caney and San Juan Hill, the outer defenses of Santiago, were assaulted by the Americans and after two days' fighting were carried by storm. In this struggle distinguished service was rendered by the Rough Riders,² a regiment made

¹George Dewey was born in Vermont, in 1837; graduated at the United States Naval Academy; served under Farragut; promoted admiral in 1899.

²Dr. Leonard Wood was the colonel of this regiment, and Theodore Roosevelt the lieutenant-colonel.



The *Oregon* joins Sampson's fleet.

The battle-ship *Oregon* was at Puget Sound, on the Pacific coast, at the time of the sinking of the *Maine* in the harbor of Havana. She went at once to San Francisco, and from there started to join Admiral Sampson's fleet in the West Indies, making the voyage of 15,000 miles in fifty-nine days at sea, "through two oceans and three zones," arriving in time to take part in the engagement with the Spanish fleet.

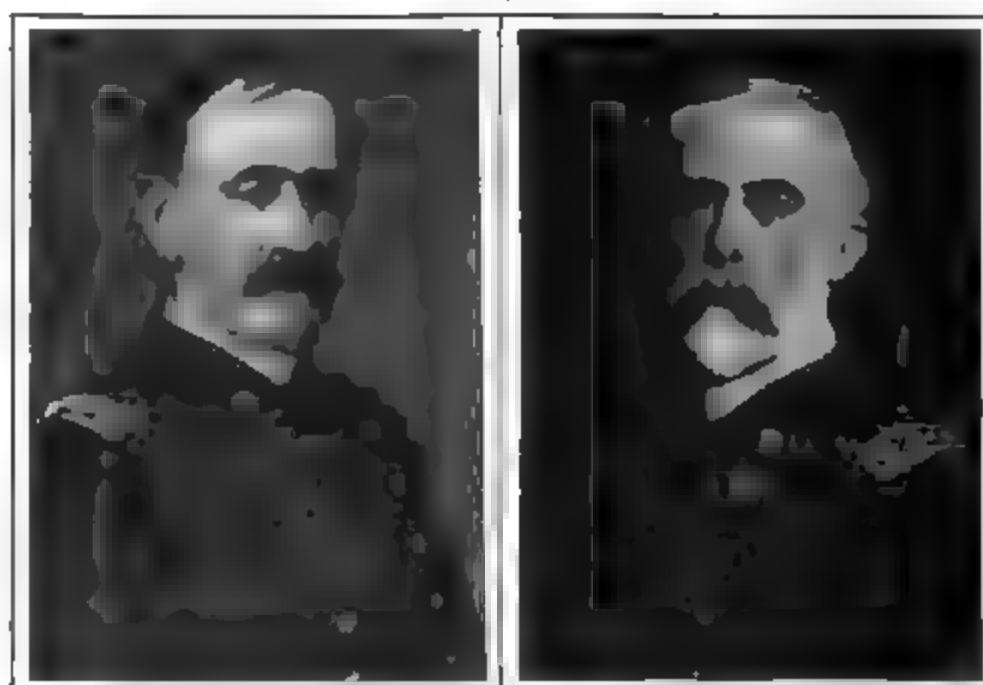
up of cow-boys, hunters, ranchmen, Indians, and college graduates.

When Cervera saw that Santiago was doomed, he sailed out of the harbor—he was not "bottled up," after all—but he was not allowed to escape. His ships were attacked by the American fleet commanded by Admiral Sampson, and within a few hours they were destroyed. In this engagement the American fleet was directed by Commodore Schley, the actual commander being absent, though not out of sight of the fighting at the time of the engagement. Soon after the destruction of the Spanish fleet Santiago surrendered (July 17). On July 25 General Miles captured Porto Rico.

Spain was now ready for peace, and in August, by the terms of a preliminary treaty, agreed to surrender all claim to Cuba and to cede to the United States Porto Rico and all other Spanish islands in the West Indies. Further on in the peace negotiations Spain also agreed to give up to the United States all

sovereignty over the Philippine Islands, receiving therefor the sum of twenty millions of dollars. Thus the Spanish War gave us the Philippine Islands and Porto Rico, and took from Spain every foot of land she possessed in the New World. During the progress of the war the Hawaiian Islands were annexed (July, 1898) to the United States.

At first the Filipinos on some of the islands were discontented with American rule, and in February, 1899, insurgent forces led



Winfield Scott Schley.

Born in Maryland, in 1839; retired
in 1901.

William Thomas Sampson.

Born at Palmyra, New York, in 1840;
died in 1902.

by Aguinaldo attacked the American army at Manila. The uprising, however, was put down, and gradually the Filipinos grew accustomed to the new order of things.

283. The Reëlection of McKinley; his Death.—In 1900 the Republicans renominated McKinley for President and nominated Theodore Roosevelt for Vice-President. The Democrats renominated William J. Bryan and declared against the policy of holding new possessions as dependencies, asserting that such a policy was contrary to the principles of the American government. The Republicans were successful, receiving 292 electoral votes out of 447.

In the autumn of 1901 the American people for the third time were startled and horrified by the news that their President had been assassinated. President McKinley, on September 6, while attending the Pan-American Exposition at Buffalo, was shot by an anarchist, and on September 14 he died. His death brought sorrow to every home. His private life had been pure and blameless, and in the performance of his public duties he was honest, kind-hearted, and skilful.

Upon the death of President McKinley the Vice-President, Theo-



The Philippines.



Copyright, 1904, by H. W. Hens.

Theodore Roosevelt.

Born at New York, in 1858, assistant Secretary of the Navy, 1897-98. fought in the Spanish-American War; appointed colonel in 1898, elected governor of New York, 1898. Vice-President, 1900; succeeded to the Presidency upon the death of McKinley; re-elected in 1904.

dore Roosevelt, at once assumed the duties of the Presidency. Roosevelt, although still a comparatively young man, was already well known for his many public services.

**THE ADMINISTRATION OF
THEODORE ROOSEVELT (1901-09)**

284. The Anthracite Coal Strike.

—One of the first serious questions that President Roosevelt had to deal with was a great strike of the anthracite coal-miners in Pennsylvania. The strike began in the spring of 1902 and dragged on through the summer and far into the fall, and it began to look as if the people during the coming winter would not have enough coal for their stoves. So President Roosevelt, in order to prevent a coal famine, undertook to bring about a settlement of the strike, and after a good

deal of trouble succeeded in getting the strikers and the mine-owners to submit their quarrel to a commission which was appointed by himself. The miners went back to work and the commission settled the matter in a manner satisfactory to both sides.



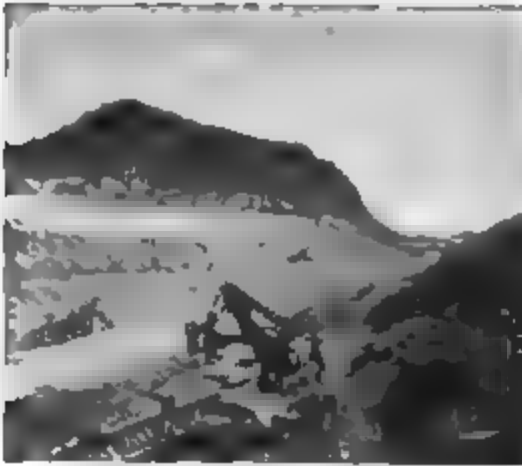
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At the St. Louis Exposition.

285. The St. Louis Exposition.—In April, 1904, President Roosevelt pressed an electric button and opened the gates of the Louisiana Purchase Exposition which was held in St. Louis to commemorate the hundredth anniversary of the purchase made by Jefferson (p. 189). The buildings of this exposition were splendid examples of architecture and the electrical display was one of surpassing beauty and grandeur. The fair was especially successful in showing the wonderful progress which had been made by the West.¹

286. The Panama Canal.—The people of the United States have long desired a ship-canal across the Isthmus of Panama in order to save the long voyage around Cape Horn. Some difficulty, however, has usually stood in the way of building the canal. During Tyler's administration we entered into an agreement with England—a compact known as the Clayton-Bulwer treaty—not to build any Isthmian canal over which we should have exclu-

¹ In the following year another interesting and attractive exposition was held at Portland, Oregon, in honor of the Lewis and Clark expedition (p. 189).



Culebra Cut, Panama Canal.

sive control; if we built a canal it was to be neutral. This treaty stood in the way until 1902, when the Hay Pauncefote treaty set aside the Clayton-Bulwer treaty and gave us full power to construct and operate a canal across the Isthmus. Then another difficulty arose: the United States of Colombia, the country to which the Isthmus of Panama belonged, refused to ratify the treaty which gave us the right of way across the Isthmus. In 1903, however, Panama, one of the states of the United States of Colombia, seceded and set up a government of its own, and with this new government we made arrangements for a right of way across the Isthmus.

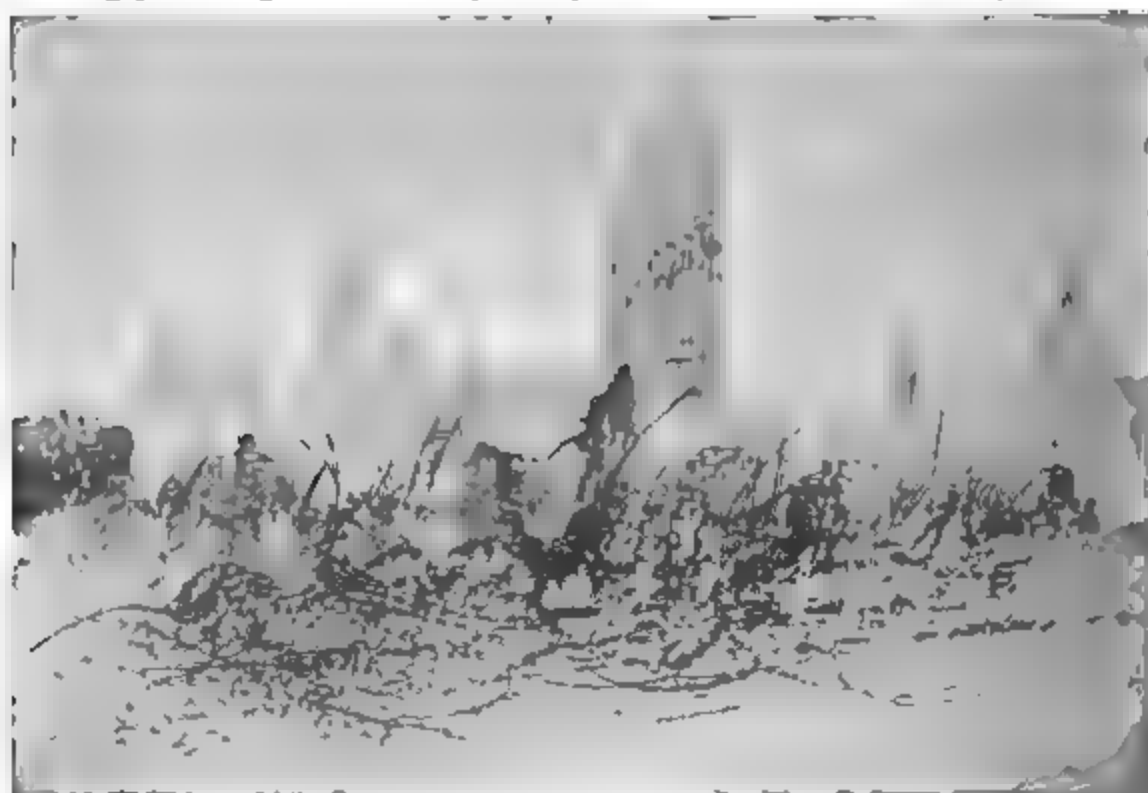


The Panama Canal.

President Roosevelt at once took up the task of building the canal,¹ and if no further difficulties arise it will not be many years before the great work is finished.

287. The Election of 1904.—In 1904 the Republicans in the national convention nominated Roosevelt on the first ballot by a unanimous vote. The Democrats nominated Alton B. Parker of New York. The Social Democratic party nominated Eugene V. Debs of Indiana. Roosevelt was elected by an overwhelming majority, his popular plurality reaching the enormous figure of more than 2,500,000 votes.

288. The Rate Law of 1906.—The most important measure of Roosevelt's administration was the Rate Law. For a long time there had been complaints that the charges of the railroads were not just. So President Roosevelt urged upon Congress the necessity of giving the Interstate Commerce Commission (p. 391) the power to regulate the charges of railroads. Accordingly Congress, in 1906, passed a law which gives the



The great fire after the earthquake in San Francisco.
Burning of the City Hall.

¹ A French company had already begun the digging of a canal across the Isthmus. When the United States undertook the building of the canal the French company was paid \$40,000,000 for the unfinished work.

commission, upon the complaint of an interstate passenger or of an interstate shipper of goods, the power to do away with a passenger or freight rate which it regards as unjust or unreasonable, and to fix a new rate which it regards as just and reasonable.

289. The San Francisco Earthquake.—Early on the morning of April 18, 1906, the people of San Francisco were awakened by the shock of a terrible earthquake. The shock lasted only about a minute, but during this short period of time many of the finest buildings of the city were wrecked, and a fire was started which consumed over four hundred blocks of houses. The property loss caused by the earthquake is estimated at half a billion dollars. The loss in deaths was over five hundred.

THE ADMINISTRATION OF WILLIAM H. TAFT (1909-)

290. The Election of 1908; the Payne Bill.—The Republicans in 1908 nominated William H. Taft of Ohio for President. The Democrats for the third time nominated William J. Bryan. The Socialists again nominated Eugene V. Debs. The Republicans won, their candidate receiving 321 electoral votes out of 442.

During the campaign of 1908 Mr. Taft promised that if elected he would, immediately after his inauguration, call an extra session of Congress to consider the subject of tariff revision. In fulfilment of this promise, Congress was convened in March, 1909. It at once took up the tariff question, and in August passed the Payne Tariff Law. This law reduced slightly some of the rates of the Dingley Law.



William Howard Taft.

Born at Cincinnati, Ohio, in 1857; graduated at Yale; admitted to the bar; United States circuit judge, 1892-1902; president United States Philippine Commission, 1900-04; first civil governor of the Philippines, 1901-04; Secretary of War, 1904-08; elected President in 1908.

291. The Discovery of the North Pole.—In September, 1909,



Peary, discoverer of the North Pole.
From the bust by William Ordway Partridge

Commander Robert E. Peary of the United States navy announced that on April 6, 1909, he had discovered the North Pole.¹ The search for the Pole had been carried on for centuries by explorers of different nations, and Americans naturally rejoiced when they heard that a citizen of the United States was the first to reach it. They were also glad that Peary, who had been trying for more than twenty years to reach the Pole, had at last accomplished his purpose and had thereby won immortal fame.

QUESTIONS ON THE TEXT

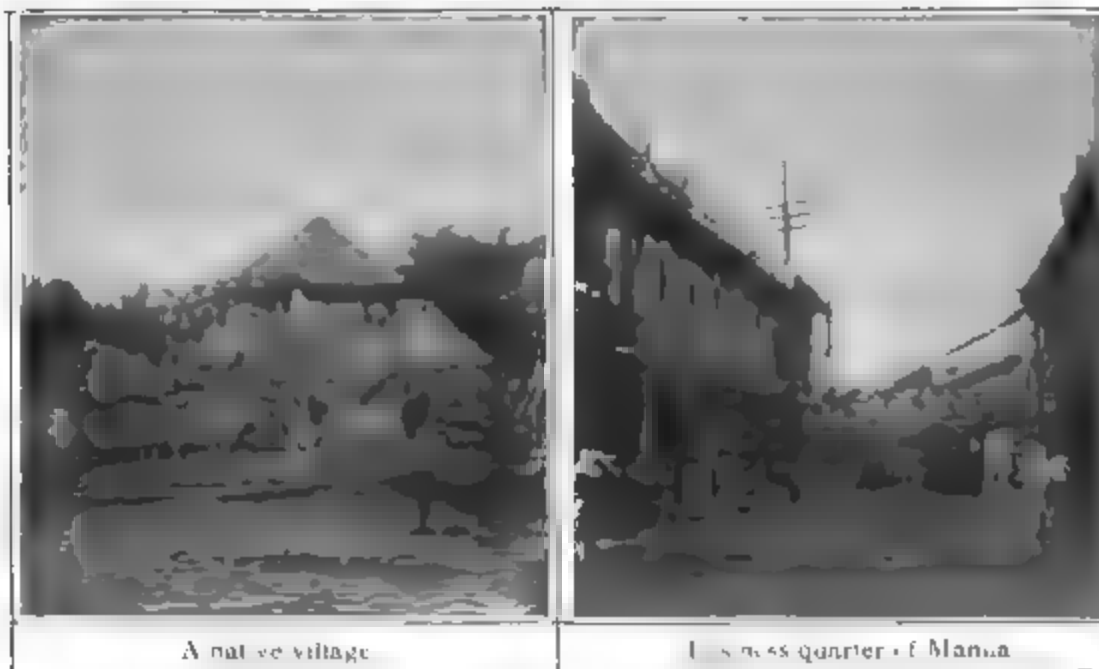
1. What were the issues and result of the presidential election in 1896?
2. How did Congress deal with the tariff question in 1897?
3. What events led the United States to declare war against Spain? Give an account of the fighting in this war. What were the results of the war?
4. Give an account of the reelection of McKinley and of his assassination.
5. How was the great coal strike of 1902 settled?
6. Give an account of the St. Louis Exposition.
7. What difficulties have stood in the way of our building a canal across the Isthmus of Panama? When and under what circumstances did the building of the canal begin?
8. Give an account of the presidential election of 1904.
9. What are the main provisions of the Rate Law of 1906?

¹ Several days before the news came from Peary, Dr. Frederick A. Cook of Brooklyn, returning from an arctic voyage, announced that he had reached the North Pole on April 21, 1908. It seems quite certain, however, that Cook's statement was untrue.

10. Give an account of the San Francisco earthquake.
11. Who were the leading candidates in the presidential election of 1908? What were the results of the election?
12. What was the effect of the Payne Tariff?
13. When and by whom was the North Pole discovered?

REVIEW AND READING REFERENCES

1. Dates: 1609, 1754, 1763, 1792, 1821, 1850, 1862 (2), 1863 (2), 1864, 1865 (2), 1877.
2. Places: St. Augustine, Charleston, Fort Donelson, Chancellorsville, Gettysburg, Atlanta, Appomattox.
3. Persons: Americus Vesputius, Balboa, Cartier, Washington, Wolfe, Monroe, John Quincy Adams, Davis, Grant, Lee, Sherman, Johnson.
4. Tell what you can about: the Jamestown colony; the founding of Georgia; the Missouri Compromise; the Monroe Doctrine; the Discovery of gold in California; the settlement of Oregon; the invention of the telegraph; the invention of the sewing-machine; the capture of Fort Donelson; the *Merrimac* and the *Monitor*; the battle of Chancellorsville; the battle of Gettysburg; the fall of Vicksburg; Sherman's March to the Sea; Grant's campaign against Lee; the work of reconstruction; the carpet-baggers; the Electoral Commission.
5. Topics: The Spanish War: 15 (Vol. II), 352-401. The Rough Riders: 3, 380-382; also 11, 362-376. The battle of Manila Bay: 11, 347-356. Santiago: 14, 630.



Two scenes in the Philippines.

XLV

A LEADER AMONG THE NATIONS



Bartholdi's Statue of
Liberty, New York
harbor

Must a majestic rhythm of rise and fall
Conquer the peoples once so proud on earth?
Does man but march in circles, after all,
Playing his curious game of death and birth?

Or shall an ultimate nation, God's own child,
Arise and rule and never conquered be,
Untouched of time because, all undefiled,
She makes His ways her ways eternally?

Richard Burton.

Introduction.—In previous chapters we traced the progress of our civilization from the earliest colonial days down to the year 1860. In this final chapter we shall take a glance at the progress which our country has made between 1860 and the present time. A bird's-eye view of this progress is shown in the table given below. The figures of the table need not be learned, but while studying this chapter the pupil will find the table exceedingly helpful in making comparisons.

TABLE OF PROGRESS IN THE UNITED STATES SINCE 1860

Items	1860	1880	1900	1908
1. Farms and farm property. \$	7,980,493,000	\$12,180,501,538	\$20,514,001,538	\$ 28,000,000,000
2. Farm products	1,910,000,000	2,212,540,927	3,764,177,706	7,778,000,000
3. Products of manufacturing	1,885,861,670	5,369,579,171	13,014,287,498	14,802,147,087
4. Imports of merchandise . .	353,616,119	667,594,746	849,941,184	1,194,341,792
5. Exports of merchandise . .	333,576,037	835,630,658	1,394,483,082	1,860,773,346
6. Miles of railroad	30,626	93,267	198,964	236,949
7. Salaries for public schools		37,832,506	137,687,746	196,980,919
8. Population	31,443,321	50,155,703	76,303,307	87,189,392*
9. Immigrants arrived.....	150,237	457,257	448,572	782,870
10. Wealth	16,159,616,000	42,642,000,000	88,517,306,775	120,000,000,000*

*Estimated.

292. Agriculture.—The table shows that our farm products have increased fourfold since 1860. This increase has been due in a large measure to the opening up of lands in the New West



Combined harvester and thresher.

under the Homestead Act. The increase has also been due in part to the use of improved machinery. The enormous farms of the West could not easily and profitably be tilled with the old-style implements. So the simple plow drawn by horses and oxen was cast aside after the Civil War, and great gang-plows drawn by steam-engines were brought into use. The early reaper, which simply cut the grain, was followed first by the self-binder, which both cut the grain and bound it into sheaves, and later the self-binder was followed by the complete harvester, which cut the grain, threshed it, and put it into sacks. By 1880 the labor of one man in a harvest-field was equal to the labor of three men before the war. The chief products of the field to-day are for the most part what they were in 1860—cotton, tobacco, wheat, and corn—although to-day corn, and not cotton, is king.

293. Manufacturing.—The Table of Progress shows that, while the products of our farms have increased fourfold since 1860, the products of our factories have increased eightfold. In 1860 agriculture was still our chief pursuit, although we saw (p. 299) that manufacturing by that time was close on the heels of agriculture. By 1880 manufacturing had overtaken and had passed agriculture, and to-day the value of what we make is twice the

value of what we grow. Indeed, since the Civil War we have become the greatest manufacturing nation in the world. By 1894 our manufactures were worth twice as much as those of England, four times as much as those of France, and one third as much as those of all the nations of the world.

294. Mining.—Before 1860 our mining industry was not very important, but since the development of the New West and the opening of the mines in the Rocky Mountain States we have become the greatest mining nation in the world. In 1860 the total value of the yearly output of all our mines was considerably less than \$100,000,000; to-day (1910) the value of that output is more than \$2,000,000,000. "In the production of the products that are most essential to modern industry—coal, iron, and copper—the United States leads all other nations; it also stands first in the production of petroleum, lead, and silver." (Bogart.)

295. Commerce.—Our commerce has kept pace with our agriculture, our manufacturing, and our mining. The Table of

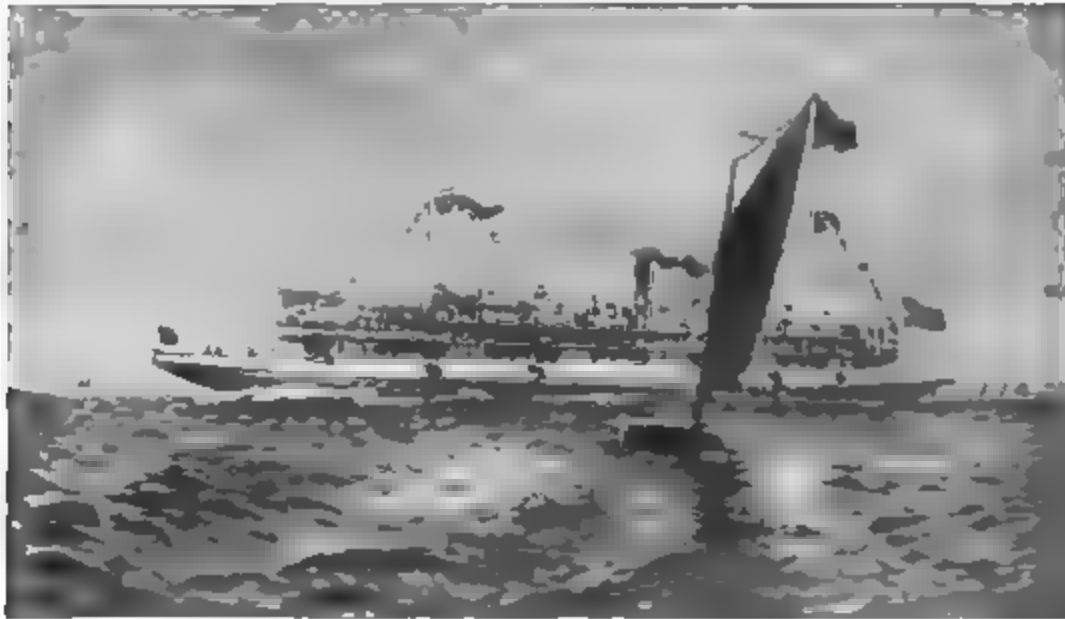


Steamers passing through the "Soo" locks in the Great Lakes.

Progress shows that our foreign trade—exports and imports combined—has increased more than fourfold since the war. The table also shows that, while before the war we were buying

from foreign countries more than we were selling to them, to-day we are selling to them vastly more than we are buying.

The figures in the table show only the values of our foreign trade. This is enormous, it is true, but our home trade is vastly greater than our foreign trade. The value of what we sell to ourselves is about thirteen times the value of what we sell to foreign countries.



A "whaleback" passenger steamer on the Great Lakes.

This immense increase in the volume of our commerce is due largely to the wonderful improvements which have been made since 1860 in the means of communication. At the opening of the Civil War telegraph lines connected the principal cities of the country, and soon after the close of the war the Old World and the New were joined together (in 1866) by a telegraphic cable¹ passing through the waters of the Atlantic from Valentia Bay, in Ireland, to Trinity Bay, in Newfoundland. In 1876 the telephone was invented, and in 1899 to the wonder of the world the wireless message was added. The use of the telegraph and the telephone hastens the transaction of business just as much as the use of machinery hastens the manu-

¹ For the success in constructing and laying the first cable the world is indebted chiefly to the perseverance and energy of Cyrus W. Field of New York.

**Some of
the modern wonders
of electricity.**

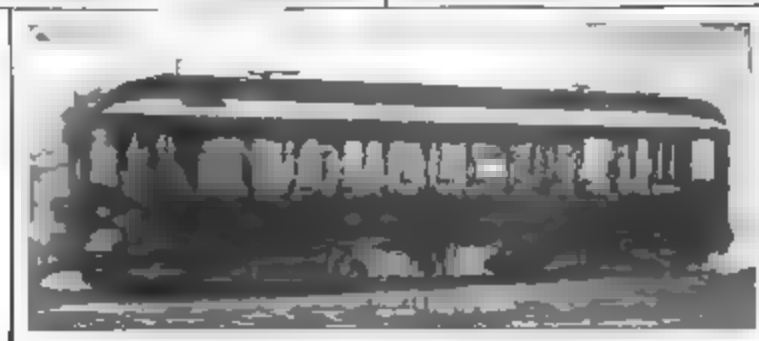
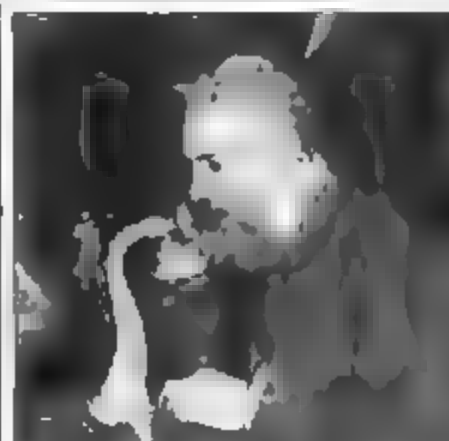
The Washington Arch in New
York illuminated by the elec-
tric light

An electric railway train.

Professor Alexander Graham
Bell, inventor of the telephone,
speaking over the first long
distance line between New
York and Chicago

A wireless telegraph station

A trolley car



facture of goods, and the millions and billions of messages that are sent over the wires every year increase enormously the number of business transactions and swell enormously the volume of trade.¹ The Post-Office Department in recent years has established the rural free delivery service, and this has done much to stimulate trade and increase its volume.

But the greatest factor in the growth of our commerce since the war has been the development of our railroad systems. In 1860 we had 30,000 miles of railroad; in 1880 we had 93,000 miles; to-day we have nearly 250,000 miles, not including parallel tracks or yard tracks. The railroad mileage of the United States is far greater than that of all the countries of Europe combined, and it is more than half as great as that of all the countries of the world.²

296. The Age of Electricity.—

Since 1860 marvelous progress has been made in the use of electricity. In 1878 Charles F. Brush of Cleveland, Ohio, invented a system of arc electric lighting, and about the same time Thomas A. Edison, in his laboratory at Menlo Park, in New Jersey, exhibited an electric incandescent lamp. Not long after the appearance of these inventions streets and houses were lighted by electricity. About 1885 street-cars began to take their power from wires charged with an electric current, and rapidly thereafter electric cars took the place of cars drawn by horses, and to some ex-

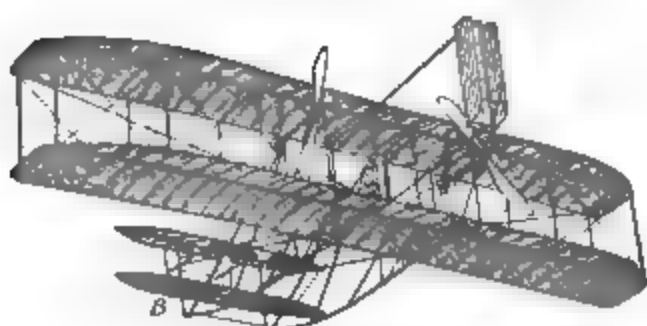


Thomas A. Edison.

In his new electric street-car, run by storage batteries.

¹ The wireless telephone which is now being perfected may become a means of communication even more wonderful than anything that has yet been invented.

² We are now (1910) reading daily of amazing success in aerial navigation, and it may be that the flying-machine will soon be brought into use as a new means of transportation and travel.



The Wright Brothers' *aéroplane*.

tent also of those drawn by locomotives. The electric motor has also been brought into use for driving many kinds of fixed machinery and wheeled vehicles. The electric spark is used by physicians and

surgeons to produce the mysterious X-ray, which enables the surgeon to see the bones in a living body. Indeed, so many electric appliances have been brought into use in recent years that we now seem to be living in an age of electricity.

297. Education.—The Table of Progress shows that, while we have been advancing in commercial and industrial matters, we have at the same time been moving rapidly forward in matters of education. We saw that by 1860 the foundations of a great public-school system had been laid. Since 1860 we have been steadily building upon that foundation, and to-day our public schools are a source of national pride. In every State there are free schools where the children of the State may be taught the rudiments of learning. In every State there are free high schools where pupils may pursue advanced studies, and in most of the States a college education is within easy reach of every boy and girl who earnestly desires it.

298. The New South.—In no part of the country has progress since the Civil War been more rapid than



A business street in Atlanta, Georgia.

in the South. At the close of the war the South found itself in a deplorable condition. Its planters were poor and in debt; its

fields were neglected and untilled; its system of slave labor was destroyed. For some years after the war, therefore, the South could make no progress. About 1880 the people of the South rallied and took a fresh start, and conditions began to improve. When the New Orleans Cotton Exposition was held in 1884 it was shown that the South was raising more cotton than ever before. And the South by this time was beginning to work her rich mines of coal and iron, and to spin and weave her own cotton. Before the war the South relied almost wholly upon farming, but in recent years she relies upon her mines and factories as well as upon her farms. The Atlanta Exposition, held in 1895, by its striking exhibits of the manufactures and the natural resources of the South, showed to the world that since the war a New South had come into being, and the Jamestown Exposition in 1907 opened the eyes of visitors even wider to the great progress which the South is making in every department of commerce and industry. Cotton in the South is still the king of crops, yet the Southern corn crop in 1908 was valued at half a billion dollars and was twice as great as the crop of 1860. The lumber cut in Southern forests in 1907 was about half the amount cut in the whole Union.



In a North Carolina cotton-mill.

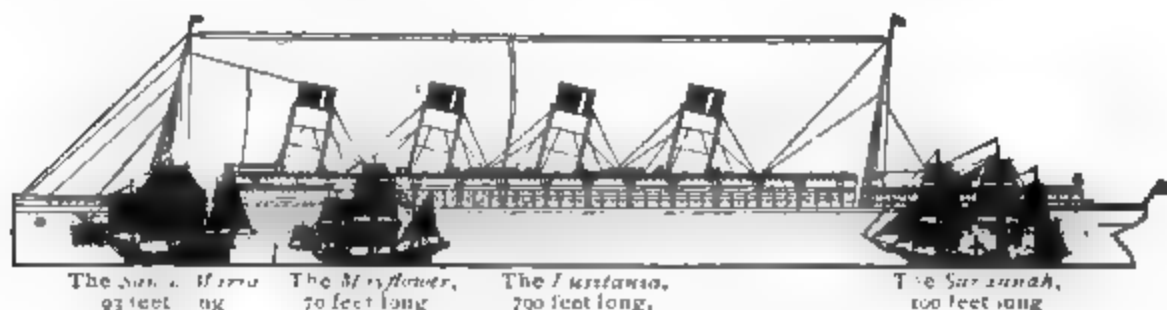
The iron produced in Southern mines in 1907 was more than three million tons. The cotton consumed in Southern mills to-day is more than that consumed in Northern mills. "On the basis of percentage the increase in the South in the last six years is 48 per cent., and that of the rest of the country 32 per cent." That is, while the rest of the country is making a gain of *two* steps, the South is making a gain of *three*.

299. Population and Wealth.—Since 1860 our population has increased threefold, and we have become one of the most populous nations of the globe. This great increase is due largely to that tide of immigration which began to flow just after the war

(p. 376) and which has been flowing ever since. Of the 26,000,000 immigrants who have come to America since the beginning of our national history nearly 20,000,000 have come since 1870. In recent years immigrants have been arriving at the rate of a million a year.

Of the increase in population since 1860 cities and towns have received more than their share, and farming districts have received less than their share. In 1860 only one sixth of the people lived in towns and cities; by 1900 one third lived in towns and cities; and to-day it is probable that we have as many people in our cities as we have on our farms.

Our growth in wealth since 1860 has been even more remarkable than our growth in population, as the Table of Progress shows. While our population has been increasing threefold, our wealth has increased sevenfold, and we have become by far the richest nation of the earth.



An ocean steamship of to-day as compared with early ships.

QUESTIONS ON THE TEXT

1. Describe the progress which has been made in agriculture since the Civil War.
2. What progress has been made in manufacturing since the war?
3. To what extent has our mining industry increased since 1860?
4. Compare the commerce which we had in 1860 with the commerce which we have to-day. Give an account of the improvements which have been made since 1860 in the means of communication.
5. What progress has been made in the use of electricity since 1860?
6. What progress has been made in education since 1860?
7. Show that since the Civil War a New South has come into being.
8. To what extent has our population increased since 1860? To what extent has our city population increased since 1860? What increase has been made in our wealth since 1860?

REVIEW AND READING REFERENCES

1. Dates: 1643, 1803, 1825, 1860, 1861 (2), 1877, 1896, 1898.
2. Places: San Salvador, Watauga, Marietta, Detroit, New Orleans, Appomattox.
3. Persons: Magellan, Virginia Dare, Burr, De Witt Clinton, Fulton, Douglas, John Brown, Buchanan, McClellan, Lincoln, Johnson, Garfield, Arthur, Cleveland, Blaine, Harrison, McKinley, Bryan, Roosevelt, Taft.
4. Tell what you can about the founding of Maryland; the Stamp Act; the First Continental Congress; the Declaration of Independence; the Kansas-Nebraska Bill; the Dred Scott decision; John Brown's Raid; the election of 1860; the battle of Manassas; the work of reconstruction; the Electoral Commission; the merit system; the Anti-Trust Law; the election of 1896; the war with Spain; the Panama Canal; the Rate Law of 1906; Nebraska; Colorado; the development of the New Northwest; Wyoming and Utah; the development of the New Southwest.



The great seal of the United States.

APPENDIX I

THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE

IN CONGRESS, JULY 4, 1776.

THE UNANIMOUS DECLARATION OF THE THIRTEEN UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

WHEN, in the course of human events, it becomes necessary for one people to dissolve the political bands which have connected them with another, and to assume, among the powers of the earth, the separate and equal station to which the laws of nature and of nature's God entitle them, a decent respect to the opinions of mankind requires that they should declare the causes which impel them to the separation.

We hold these truths to be self-evident: that all men are created equal; that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable rights; that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. That, to secure these rights, governments are instituted among men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed; that, whenever any form of government becomes destructive of these ends, it is the right of the people to alter or to abolish it, and to institute new government, laying its foundation on such principles, and organizing its powers in such form, as to them shall seem most likely to effect their safety and happiness. Prudence, indeed, will dictate that governments long established, should not be changed for light and transient causes; and, accordingly, all experience hath shown, that mankind are more disposed to suffer, while evils are sufferable, than to right themselves by abolishing the forms to which they are accustomed. But, when a long train of abuses and usurpations, pursuing invariably the same object, evinces a design to reduce them under absolute despotism, it is their right, it is their duty, to throw off such government, and to provide new guards for their future security.—Such has been the patient sufferance of these colonies; and such is now the necessity which constrains them to alter their former systems of government. The history of the present king of Great Britain is a history of repeated injuries and usurpations, all having in direct object the establishment of an absolute tyranny over these States. To prove this, let facts be submitted to a candid world.

He has refused his assent to laws the most wholesome and necessary for the public good.

He has forbidden his governors to pass laws of immediate and pressing importance, unless suspended in their operation till his assent should

be obtained; and, when so suspended, he has utterly neglected to attend to them.

He has refused to pass other laws for the accommodation of large districts of people, unless those people would relinquish the right of representation in the legislature, a right inestimable to them and formidable to tyrants only.

He has called together legislative bodies at places unusual, uncomfortable, and distant from the depository of their public records, for the sole purpose of fatiguing them into compliance with his measures.

He has dissolved representative houses repeatedly, for opposing, with manly firmness, his invasions on the rights of the people.

He has refused, for a long time after such dissolutions, to cause others to be elected; whereby the legislative powers, incapable of annihilation, have returned to the people at large for their exercise; the State remaining, in the meantime, exposed to all the dangers of invasion from without, and convulsions within.

He has endeavored to prevent the population of these States; for that purpose obstructing the laws for naturalization of foreigners; refusing to pass others to encourage their migration hither, and raising the conditions of new appropriations of lands.

He has obstructed the administration of justice, by refusing his assent to laws for establishing judiciary powers.

He has made judges dependent on his will alone for the tenure of their offices, and the amount and payment of their salaries.

He has erected a multitude of new offices, and sent hither swarms of officers to harass our people, and eat out their substance.

He has kept among us in times of peace, standing armies, without the consent of our legislature.

He has affected to render the military independent of, and superior to, the civil power.

He has combined, with others, to subject us to a jurisdiction foreign

He has obstructed the administration of justice by refusing his assent to their acts of pretended legislation:

For quartering large bodies of armed troops among us:

For protecting them, by a mock trial, from punishment for any murders which they should commit on the inhabitants of these States:

For cutting off our trade with all parts of the world:

For imposing taxes on us without our consent:

For depriving us, in many cases, of the benefits of trial by jury:

For transporting us beyond seas to be tried for pretended offenses:

For abolishing the free system of English laws in a neighboring province, establishing therein an arbitrary government and enlarging its boundaries, so as to render it at once an example and fit instrument for introducing the same absolute rule into these colonies:

For taking away our charters, abolishing our most valuable laws, and altering, fundamentally, the forms of our governments:

For suspending our own legislatures, and declaring themselves invested with power to legislate for us in all cases whatsoever.

He has abdicated government here by declaring us out of his protection, and waging war against us.

He has plundered our seas, ravaged our coasts, burnt our towns, and destroyed the lives of our people.

He is, at this time, transporting large armies of foreign mercenaries to complete the works of death, desolation, and tyranny, already begun, with circumstances of cruelty and perfidy scarcely paralleled in the most barbarous ages, and totally unworthy the head of a civilized nation.

He has constrained our fellow-citizens, taken captive on the high seas, to bear arms against their country, to become the executioners of their friends and brethren, or to fall themselves by their hands.

He has excited domestic insurrections amongst us, and has endeavored to bring on the inhabitants of our frontiers, the merciless Indian savages, whose known rule of warfare is an undistinguished destruction of all ages, sexes, and conditions.

In every stage of these oppressions, we have petitioned for redress in the most humble terms: our repeated petitions have been answered only by repeated injury. A prince, whose character is thus marked by every act which may define a tyrant, is unfit to be the ruler of a free people.

Nor have we been wanting in attention to our British brethren. We have warned them, from time to time, of attempts by their legislature to extend an unwarrantable jurisdiction over us. We have reminded them of the circumstances of our emigration and settlement here. We have appealed to their native justice and magnanimity, and we have conjured them, by the ties of our common kindred, to disavow these usurpations, which would inevitably interrupt our connections and correspondence. They too have been deaf to the voice of justice and consanguinity. We must, therefore, acquiesce in the necessity which denounces our separation, and hold them, as we hold the rest of mankind, enemies in war, in peace friends.

We, therefore, the representatives of the United States of America, in general Congress assembled, appealing to the Supreme Judge of the world for the rectitude of our intentions, do, in the name, and by authority of the good people of these colonies, solemnly publish and declare, That these United Colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent States; that they are absolved from all allegiance to the British crown, and that all political connection between them and the state of Great Britain is, and ought to be, totally dissolved; and that, as free and independent States, ~~they~~ they have full power to levy war,

conclude peace, contract alliances, establish commerce, and to do all other acts and things which independent States may of right do. And for the support of this declaration, with a firm reliance on the protection of Divine Providence, we mutually pledge to each other our lives, our fortunes, and our sacred honor.

JOHN HANCOCK.

New Hampshire

Josiah Bartlett,
Wm. Whipple,
Matthew Thornton.

Massachusetts Bay

Saml. Adams,
John Adams,
Robt. Treat Paine,
Elbridge Gerry.

Rhode Island

Step. Hopkins,
William Ellery.

Connecticut

Roger Sherman,
Sam'el Huntington,
Wm. Williams,
Oliver Wolcott.

New York

Wm. Floyd,
Phil. Livingston,
Frans. Lewis,
Lewis Morris.

New Jersey

Richd. Stockton,
Jno. Witherspoon,
Fras. Hopkinson,
John Hart,
Abra. Clark.

Pennsylvania

Robt. Morris,
Benjamin Rush,
Benja. Franklin,
John Morton,
Geo. Clymer,
Jas. Smith,
Geo. Taylor,
James Wilson,
Geo. Ross.

Delaware

Cæsar Rodney,
Geo. Read,
Tho. M'Kean.

Maryland

Samuel Chase,
Wm. Paca,
Thos. Stone,

Charles Carroll of Car-
rollton.

Virginia

George Wythe,
Richard Henry Lee,
Th Jefferson,
Benja. Harrison,
Thos. Nelson, jr.,
Francis Lightfoot Lee,
Carter Braxton.

North Carolina

Wm. Hooper,
Joseph Hewes,
John Penn.

South Carolina

Edward Rutledge,
Thos. Heyward, Junr.,
Thomas Lynch, Junr.,
Arthur Middleton.

Georgia

Button Gwinnett,
Lyman Hall,
Geo. Walton.

APPENDIX II

CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES

· We the people of the United States, in order to form a more perfect union, establish justice, insure domestic tranquillity, provide for the common defense, promote the general welfare, and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity, do ordain and establish this Constitution for the United States of America.

ARTICLE I

SECTION 1. All legislative powers herein granted shall be vested in a Congress of the United States, which shall consist of a Senate and House of Representatives.

SECTION 2. 1 The House of Representatives shall be composed of members chosen every second year by the people of the several States, and the electors in each State shall have the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the State legislature.

2 No person shall be a representative who shall not have attained to the age of twenty-five years, and been seven years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that State in which he shall be chosen.

3 Representatives and direct taxes shall be apportioned among the several States which may be included within this Union, according to their respective numbers, which shall be determined by adding to the whole number of free persons, including those bound to service for a term of years, and excluding Indians not taxed, three fifths of all other persons.¹ The actual enumeration shall be made within three years after the first meeting of the Congress of the United States, and within every subsequent term of ten years, in such manner as they shall by law direct. The number of representatives shall not exceed one for every thirty thousand, but each State shall have at least one representative; and until such enumeration shall be made, the State of New Hampshire shall be entitled to choose three, Massachusetts eight, Rhode Island and Providence Plantations one, Connecticut five, New York six, New Jersey four, Pennsylvania eight, Delaware one, Maryland six, Virginia ten, North Carolina five, South Carolina five, and Georgia three.

¹ The last half of this sentence was superseded by the 13th and 14th Amendments. (See p. xviii, following.)

4 When vacancies happen in the representation from any State, the executive authority thereof shall issue writs of election to fill such vacancies.

5 The House of Representatives shall choose their speaker and other officers, and shall have the sole power of impeachment.

SECTION 3. 1 The Senate of the United States shall be composed of two Senators from each State, chosen by the legislature thereof for six years; and each senator shall have one vote.

2 Immediately after they shall be assembled in consequence of the first election, they shall be divided as equally as may be into three classes. The seats of the senators of the first class shall be vacated at the expiration of the second year, of the second class at the expiration of the fourth year, and of the third class at the expiration of the sixth year, so that one third may be chosen every second year; and if vacancies happen by resignation, or otherwise, during the recess of the legislature of any State, the executive thereof may make temporary appointments until the next meeting of the legislature, which shall then fill such vacancies.

3 No person shall be a senator who shall not have attained to the age of thirty years, and been nine years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that State for which he shall be chosen.

4 The Vice President of the United States shall be President of the Senate, but shall have no vote, unless they be equally divided.

5 The Senate shall choose their other officers, and also a president *pro tempore*, in the absence of the Vice President, or when he shall exercise the office of President of the United States.

6 The Senate shall have the sole power to try all impeachments. When sitting for that purpose, they shall be on oath or affirmation. When the President of the United States is tried, the chief justice shall preside: and no person shall be convicted without the concurrence of two thirds of the members present.

7 Judgment in cases of impeachment shall not extend further than to removal from office, and disqualification to hold and enjoy any office of honor, trust or profit under the United States: but the party convicted shall nevertheless be liable and subject to indictment, trial, judgment and punishment, according to law.

SECTION 4. 1 The times, places, and manner of holding elections for senators and representatives, shall be prescribed in each State by the legislature thereof; but the Congress may at any time by law make or alter such regulations, except as to the places of choosing senators.

2 The Congress shall assemble at least once in every year, and such meeting shall be on the first Monday in December, unless they shall by law appoint a different day.

SECTION 5. 1 Each House shall be the judge of the elections, returns and qualifications of its own members, and a majority of each shall constitute a quorum to do business; but a smaller number may adjourn from day to day, and may be authorized to compel the attendance of absent members, in such manner, and under such penalties as each House may provide.

2 Each House may determine the rules of its proceedings, punish its members for disorderly behaviour, and, with the concurrence of two thirds, expel a member.

3 Each House shall keep a journal of its proceedings, and from time to time publish the same, excepting such parts as may in their judgment require secrecy; and the yeas and nays of the members of either House on any question shall, at the desire of one fifth of those present, be entered on the journal.

4 Neither House, during the session of Congress, shall, without the consent of the other, adjourn for more than three days, nor to any other place than that in which the two Houses shall be sitting.

SECTION 6. 1 The senators and representatives shall receive a compensation for their services, to be ascertained by law, and paid out of the Treasury of the United States. They shall in all cases, except treason, felony and breach of the peace, be privileged from arrest during their attendance at the session of their respective Houses, and in going to and returning from the same; and for any speech or debate in either House, they shall not be questioned in any other place.

2 No senator or representative shall, during the time for which he was elected, be appointed to any civil office under the authority of the United States, which shall have been created, or the emoluments whereof shall have been increased during such time; and no person holding any office under the United States shall be a member of either House during his continuance in office.

SECTION 7. 1 All bills for raising revenue shall originate in the House of Representatives; but the Senate may propose or concur with amendments as on other bills.

2 Every bill which shall have passed the House of Representatives and the Senate, shall, before it become a law, be presented to the President of the United States; if he approve he shall sign it, but if not he shall return it, with his objections to that House in which it shall have originated, who shall enter the objections at large on their journal, and proceed to reconsider it. If after such reconsideration two thirds of that House shall agree to pass the bill, it shall be sent, together with the objections, to the other House, by which it shall likewise be reconsidered, and if approved by two thirds of that House, it shall become a law. But in all such cases the votes of both Houses shall be determined by yeas and nays, and the names of the persons voting

for and against the bill shall be entered on the journal of each House respectively. If any bill shall not be returned by the President within ten days (Sundays excepted) after it shall have been presented to him, the same shall be a law, in like manner as if he had signed it, unless the Congress by their adjournment prevent its return, in which case it shall not be a law.

3. Every order, resolution, or vote to which the concurrence of the Senate and House of Representatives may be necessary (except on a question of adjournment) shall be presented to the President of the United States; and before the same shall take effect, shall be approved by him, or being disapproved by him, shall be repassed by two thirds of the Senate and House of Representatives, according to the rules and limitations prescribed in the case of a bill.

SECTION 8. 1 The Congress shall have power to lay and collect taxes, duties, imposts and excises, to pay the debts and provide for the common defense and general welfare of the United States; but all duties, imposts and excises shall be uniform throughout the United States;

2 To borrow money on the credit of the United States;

3 To regulate commerce with foreign nations, and among the several States, and with the Indian tribes;

4 To establish an uniform rule of naturalization, and uniform laws on the subject of bankruptcies throughout the United States;

5 To coin money, regulate the value thereof, and of foreign coin, and fix the standard of weights and measures;

6 To provide for the punishment of counterfeiting the securities and current coin of the United States;

7 To establish post offices and post roads;

8 To promote the progress of science and useful arts by securing for limited times to authors and inventors the exclusive right to their respective writings and discoveries;

9 To constitute tribunals inferior to the Supreme Court;

10 To define and punish piracies and felonies committed on the high seas, and offenses against the law of nations;

11 To declare war, grant letters of marque and reprisal, and make rules concerning captures on land and water;

12 To raise and support armies, but no appropriation of money to that use shall be for a longer term than two years;

13 To provide and maintain a navy;

14 To make rules for the government and regulation of the land and naval forces;

15 To provide for calling forth the militia to execute the laws of the Union, suppress insurrections and repel invasions;

16 To provide for organizing, arming, and disciplining the militia,

and for governing such part of them as may be employed in the service of the United States, reserving to the States respectively the appointment of the officers, and the authority of training the militia according to the discipline prescribed by Congress;

17 To exercise exclusive legislation in all cases whatsoever, over such district (not exceeding ten miles square) as may, by cession of particular States and the acceptance of Congress, become the seat of the government of the United States,¹ and to exercise like authority over all places purchased by the consent of the legislature of the State in which the same shall be, for the erection of forts, magazines, arsenals, dockyards, and other needful buildings; and

18 To make all laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into execution the foregoing powers, and all other powers vested by this Constitution in the government of the United States, or in any department or officer thereof.

SECTION 9. 1 The migration or importation of such persons as any of the States now existing shall think proper to admit, shall not be prohibited by the Congress prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight, but a tax or duty may be imposed on such importation, not exceeding ten dollars for each person.²

2 The privilege of the writ of *habeas corpus* shall not be suspended, unless when in cases of rebellion or invasion the public safety may require it.

3 No bill of attainder or *ex post facto* law shall be passed.

4 No capitation, or other direct, tax shall be laid, unless in proportion to the census or enumeration hereinbefore directed to be taken.

5 No tax or duty shall be laid on articles exported from any State.

6 No preference shall be given by any regulation of commerce or revenue to the ports of one State over those of another: nor shall vessels bound to, or from, one State be obliged to enter, clear, or pay duties in another.

7 No money shall be drawn from the treasury, but in consequence of appropriations made by law; and a regular statement and account of the receipts and expenditures of all public money shall be published from time to time.

8 No title of nobility shall be granted by the United States: and no person holding any office of profit or trust under them, shall, without the consent of the Congress, accept of any present, emolument, office, or title, of any kind whatever, from any king, prince, or foreign State.

SECTION 10.³ 1 No State shall enter into any treaty, alliance, or confederation; grant letters of marque and reprisal; coin money; emit

¹ The District of Columbia, which comes under these regulations, had not then been erected.

² A temporary clause, no longer in force. See also Article V, p. xiv.

³ See also the 10th, 13th, 14th, and 15th Amendments, pp. xviii, xix.

bills of credit; make anything but gold and silver coin a tender in payment of debts; pass any bill of attainder, *ex post facto* law, or law impairing the obligation of contracts, or grant any title of nobility.

2 No State shall, without the consent of the Congress, lay any imposts or duties on imports or exports, except what may be absolutely necessary for executing its inspection laws: and the net produce of all duties and imposts laid by any State on imports or exports, shall be for the use of the treasury of the United States; and all such laws shall be subject to the revision and control of the Congress.

3 No State shall, without the consent of Congress, lay any duty of tonnage, keep troops, or ships of war in time of peace, enter into any agreement or compact with another State, or with a foreign power, or engage in war, unless actually invaded, or in such imminent danger as will not admit of delay.

ARTICLE II

SECTION 1. 1 The executive power shall be vested in a President of the United States of America. He shall hold his office during the term of four years, and, together with the Vice President, chosen for the same term, be elected, as follows:

2 Each State shall appoint, in such manner as the legislature thereof may direct, a number of electors, equal to the whole number of senators and representatives to which the State may be entitled in the Congress: but no senator or representative, or person holding an office of trust or profit under the United States, shall be appointed an elector.

The electors shall meet in their respective States, and vote by ballot for two persons, of whom one at least shall not be an inhabitant of the same State with themselves. And they shall make a list of all the persons voted for, and of the number of votes for each; which list they shall sign and certify, and transmit sealed to the seat of the government of the United States, directed to the president of the Senate. The president of the Senate, shall, in the presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the certificates, and the votes shall then be counted. The person having the greatest number of votes shall be the President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if there be more than one who have such majority, and have an equal number of votes, then the House of Representatives shall immediately choose by ballot one of them for President; and if no person have a majority, then from the five highest on the list the said house shall in like manner choose the President. But in choosing the President, the votes shall be taken by States, the representation from each State having one vote; a quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two thirds of the States, and a majority of all the States shall be necessary to a choice. In every case, after the choice of the President, the person having the

greatest number of votes of the electors shall be the Vice President. But if there should remain two or more who have equal votes, the Senate shall choose from them by ballot the Vice President.¹

3 The Congress may determine the time of choosing the electors, and the day on which they shall give their votes; which day shall be the same throughout the United States.

4 No person except a natural born citizen, or a citizen of the United States, at the time of the adoption of this Constitution, shall be eligible to the office of President; neither shall any person be eligible to that office who shall not have attained to the age of thirty-five years, and been fourteen years a resident within the United States.

5 In case of the removal of the President from office, or of his death, resignation, or inability to discharge the powers and duties of the said office, the same shall devolve on the Vice President, and the Congress may by law provide for the case of removal, death, resignation, or inability, both of the President and Vice President, declaring what officer shall then act as President, and such officer shall act accordingly, until the disability be removed, or a President shall be elected.

6 The President shall, at stated times, receive for his services a compensation, which shall neither be increased nor diminished during the period for which he shall have been elected, and he shall not receive within that period any other emolument from the United States, or any of them.

7 Before he enter on the execution of his office, he shall take the following oath or affirmation:—"I do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I will faithfully execute the office of President of the United States, and will to the best of my ability, preserve, protect and defend the Constitution of the United States."

SECTION 2. 1 The President shall be commander in chief of the army and navy of the United States, and of the militia of the several States, when called into the actual service of the United States; he may require the opinion, in writing, of the principal officer in each of the executive departments, upon any subject relating to the duties of their respective offices, and he shall have power to grant reprieves and pardons for offenses against the United States, except in cases of impeachment.

2 He shall have power, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, to make treaties, provided two thirds of the senators present concur; and he shall nominate, and by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, shall appoint ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls, judges of the Supreme Court, and all other officers of the United States, whose appointments are not herein otherwise provided for, and which shall be established by law: but the Congress may by law vest

¹ This paragraph superseded by the 12th Amendment, p. xvii.

the appointment of such inferior officers, as they think proper, in the President alone, in the courts of law, or in the heads of departments.

3 The President shall have power to fill up all vacancies that may happen during the recess of the Senate, by granting commissions which shall expire at the end of their next session.

SECTION 3. He shall from time to time give to the Congress information of the state of the Union, and recommend to their consideration such measures as he shall judge necessary and expedient; he may, on extraordinary occasions, convene both Houses, or either of them, and in case of disagreement between them with respect to the time of adjournment, he may adjourn them to such time as he shall think proper; he shall receive ambassadors and other public ministers; he shall take care that the laws be faithfully executed, and shall commission all the officers of the United States.

SECTION 4. The President, Vice President, and all civil officers of the United States, shall be removed from office on impeachment for, and conviction of, treason, bribery, or other high crimes and misdemeanors.

ARTICLE III

SECTION 1. The judicial power of the United States shall be vested in one Supreme Court, and in such inferior courts as the Congress may from time to time ordain and establish. The judges, both of the Supreme and inferior courts, shall hold their offices during good behavior, and shall, at stated times, receive for their services, a compensation which shall not be diminished during their continuance in office.

SECTION 2. 1 The judicial power shall extend to all cases, in law and equity, arising under this Constitution, the laws of the United States, and treaties made, or which shall be made, under their authority;—to all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls;—to all cases of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction;—to controversies to which the United States shall be a party;—to controversies between two or more States;—between a State and citizens of another State;¹—between citizens of different States,—between citizens of the same State claiming lands under grants of different States, and between a State, or the citizens thereof, and foreign States, citizens or subjects.

2 In all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls, and those in which a State shall be party, the Supreme Court shall have original jurisdiction. In all the other cases before mentioned, the Supreme Court shall have appellate jurisdiction, both as to law and fact, with such exceptions, and under such regulations as the Congress shall make.

3 The trial of all crimes, except in cases of impeachment, shall be

¹ See the 11th Amendment, p. xvii.

by jury; and such trial shall be held in the State where the said crimes shall have been committed; but when not committed within any State, the trial shall be at such place or places as the Congress may by law have directed.

SECTION 3. 1 Treason against the United States, shall consist only in levying war against them, or in adhering to their enemies, giving them aid and comfort. No person shall be convicted of treason unless on the testimony of two witnesses to the same overt act, or on confession in open court.

2 The Congress shall have power to declare the punishment of treason, but no attainder of treason shall work corruption of blood, or forfeiture except during the life of the person attainted.

ARTICLE IV

SECTION 1. Full faith and credit shall be given in each State to the public acts, records, and judicial proceedings of every other State. And the Congress may by general laws prescribe the manner in which such acts, records and proceedings shall be proved, and the effect thereof.

SECTION 2. The citizens of each State shall be entitled to all privileges and immunities of citizens in the several States.

2 A person charged in any State with treason, felony, or other crime, who shall flee from justice, and be found in another State, shall on demand of the executive authority of the State from which he fled, be delivered up to be removed to the State having jurisdiction of the crime.

3 No person held to service or labor in one State, under the laws thereof, escaping into another, shall, in consequence of any law or regulation therein, be discharged from such service or labor, but shall be delivered up on claim of the party to whom such service or labor may be due.¹

SECTION 3. 1 New States may be admitted by the Congress into this Union; but no new State shall be formed or erected within the jurisdiction of any other State; nor any State be formed by the junction of two or more States, or parts of States, without the consent of the legislatures of the States concerned as well as of the Congress.

2 The Congress shall have power to dispose of and make all needful rules and regulations respecting the territory or other property belonging to the United States; and nothing in this Constitution shall be so construed as to prejudice any claims of the United States, or of any particular State.

SECTION 4. The United States shall guarantee to every State in this Union a republican form of government, and shall protect each

¹ See the 13th Amendment, p. xviii.

of them against invasion; and on application of the legislature, or of the executive (when the legislature cannot be convened) against domestic violence.

ARTICLE V

The Congress, whenever two thirds of both Houses shall deem it necessary, shall propose amendments to this Constitution, or, on the application of the legislatures of two thirds of the several States, shall call a convention for proposing amendments, which, in either case, shall be valid to all intents and purposes, as part of this Constitution, when ratified by the legislatures of three fourths of the several States, or by conventions in three fourths thereof, as the one or the other mode of ratification may be proposed by the Congress; Provided that no amendment which may be made prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight shall in any manner affect the first and fourth clauses in the ninth section of the first article; and that no State, without its consent, shall be deprived of its equal suffrage in the Senate.

ARTICLE VI

1 All debts contracted and engagements entered into, before the adoption of this Constitution, shall be as valid against the United States under this Constitution, as under the Confederation.

2 This Constitution, and the laws of the United States which shall be made in pursuance thereof; and all treaties made, or which shall be made, under the authority of the United States, shall be the supreme law of the land; and the judges in every State shall be bound thereby, anything in the Constitution or laws of any State to the contrary notwithstanding.

3 The senators and representatives before mentioned, and the members of the several State legislatures, and all executive and judicial officers, both of the United States, and of the several States, shall be bound by oath or affirmation to support this Constitution; but no religious test shall ever be required as a qualification to any office or public trust under the United States.

ARTICLE VII

The ratification of the conventions of nine States shall be sufficient for the establishment of this Constitution between the States so ratifying the same.

Done in Convention by the unanimous consent of the States present the seventeenth day of September in the year of our Lord one thousand seven hundred and eighty-seven, and of the independence of the United States of America the twelfth. In witness whereof we have hereunto subscribed our names,

GO: WASHINGTON—

Presidt. and Deputy from Virginia

New Hampshire

John Langdon
Nicholas Gilman

Massachusetts

Nathaniel Gorham
Rufus King

Connecticut

Wm. Saml. Johnson
Roger Sherman

New York

Alexander Hamilton

New Jersey

Wil: Livingston
David Brearley
Wm. Paterson
Jona: Dayton

Pennsylvania

B. Franklin
Thomas Mifflin
Robt. Morris
Geo. Clymer
Thos. Fitzsimons
Jared Ingersoll
James Wilson
Gouv Morris

Delaware

Geo: Read
Gunning Bedford Jun
John Dickinson
Richard Bassett
Jaco: Broom

Maryland

James McHenry
Dan of St. Thos Jenifer
Danl. Carroll

Virginia

John Blair—
James Madison Jr.

North Carolina

Wm. Blount
Richd. Dobbs Spaight
Hu Williamson

South Carolina

J. Rutledge,
Charles Cotesworth Pinckney
Charles Pinckney
Pierce Butler

Georgia

William Few
Abr Baldwin

Attest

WILLIAM JACKSON Secretary.

Articles in addition to, and amendment of, the Constitution of the United States of America, proposed by Congress, and ratified by the legislatures of the several States pursuant to the fifth article of the original Constitution.

ARTICLE I¹

Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof; or abridging the freedom of speech, or of the press; or the right of the people peaceably to assemble, and to petition the government for a redress of grievances.

¹ The first ten Amendments were adopted in 1791.

APPENDIX II

ARTICLE II

A well regulated militia, being necessary to the security of a free State, the right of the people to keep and bear arms, shall not be infringed.

ARTICLE III

No soldier shall, in time of peace be quartered in any house, without the consent of the owner, nor in time of war, but in a manner to be prescribed by law.

ARTICLE IV

The right of the people to be secure in their persons, houses, papers, and effects, against unreasonable searches and seizures, shall not be violated, and no warrants shall issue, but upon probable cause, supported by oath or affirmation, and particularly describing the place to be searched, and the persons or things to be seized.

ARTICLE V

No person shall be held to answer for a capital, or otherwise infamous crime, unless on a presentment or indictment of a grand jury, except in cases arising in the land or naval forces, or in the militia, when in actual service in time of war or public danger; nor shall any person be subject for the same offense to be twice put in jeopardy of life or limb; nor shall be compelled in any criminal case to be a witness against himself, nor be deprived of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor shall private property be taken for public use without just compensation.

ARTICLE VI

In all criminal prosecutions, the accused shall enjoy the right to a speedy and public trial, by an impartial jury of the State and district wherein the crime shall have been committed, which district shall have been previously ascertained by law, and to be informed of the nature and cause of the accusation; to be confronted with the witnesses against him; to have compulsory process for obtaining witnesses in his favor, and to have the assistance of counsel for his defense.

ARTICLE VII

In suits at common law, where the value in controversy shall exceed twenty dollars, the right of trial by jury shall be preserved, and no fact tried by a jury shall be otherwise reexamined in any court of the United States, than according to the rules of the common law.

ARTICLE VIII

Excessive bail shall not be required, nor excessive fines imposed, nor cruel and unusual punishments inflicted.

ARTICLE IX

The enumeration in the Constitution of certain rights shall not be construed to deny or disparage others retained by the people.

ARTICLE X

The powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the States, are reserved to the States respectively, or to the people.

ARTICLE XI¹

The judicial power of the United States shall not be construed to extend to any suit in law or equity, commenced or prosecuted against one of the United States by citizens of another State, or by citizens or subjects of any foreign State.

ARTICLE XII²

The electors shall meet in their respective States, and vote by ballot for President and Vice President, one of whom, at least, shall not be an inhabitant of the same State with themselves; they shall name in their ballots the person voted for as President, and in distinct ballots the person voted for as Vice President, and they shall make distinct lists of all persons voted for as President and of all persons voted for as Vice President, and of the number of votes for each, which lists they shall sign and certify, and transmit sealed to the seat of the government of the United States, directed to the president of the Senate;—The president of the Senate shall, in the presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the certificates and the votes shall then be counted;—The person having the greatest number of votes for President shall be the President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if no person have such majority, then from the persons having the highest numbers not exceeding three on the list of those voted for as President, the House of Representatives shall choose immediately, by ballot, the President. But in choosing the President, the votes shall be taken by States, the representation from each State having one vote; a quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two thirds of the States, and a majority of all the States shall be necessary to a choice. And if the House of Representatives shall not choose a President whenever the right of choice shall devolve upon them, before the fourth day of March next following, then the Vice President shall act as President, as in the case of the death or other constitutional disability of the President. The person having the greatest number of votes as Vice President shall be the Vice President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed, and if no person have a majority, then from the two highest numbers

¹ Adopted in 1798.

² Adopted in 1804.

on the list, the Senate shall choose the Vice President; a quorum for the purpose shall consist of two thirds of the whole number of senators, and a majority of the whole number shall be necessary to a choice. But no person constitutionally ineligible to the office of President shall be eligible to that of Vice President of the United States.

ARTICLE XIII ¹

SECTION 1. Neither slavery nor involuntary servitude, except as a punishment for crime whereof the party shall have been duly convicted, shall exist within the United States, or any place subject to their jurisdiction.

SECTION 2. Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

ARTICLE XIV ²

SECTION 1. All persons born or naturalized in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States and of the State wherein they reside. No State shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States; nor shall any State deprive any person of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws.

SECTION 2. Representatives shall be apportioned among the several States according to their respective numbers, counting the whole number of persons in each State, excluding Indians not taxed. But when the right to vote at any election for the choice of electors for President and Vice President of the United States, representatives in Congress, the executive and judicial officers of a State, or the members of the legislature thereof, is denied to any of the male inhabitants of such State, being twenty-one years of age, and citizens of the United States, or in any way abridged, except for participation in rebellion, or other crime, the basis of representation therein shall be reduced in the proportion which the number of such male citizens shall bear to the whole number of male citizens twenty-one years of age in such State.

SECTION 3. No person shall be a senator or representative in Congress, or elector of President and Vice President, or hold any office, civil or military, under the United States, or under any State, who, having previously taken an oath, as a member of Congress, or as an officer of the United States, or as a member of any State legislature, or as an executive or judicial officer of any State, to support the Constitution of the United States, shall have engaged in insurrection or rebellion against the same, or given aid or comfort to the enemies thereof. But Congress may by a vote of two thirds of each House, remove such disability.

¹ Adopted in 1865.

² Adopted in 1868.

SECTION 4. The validity of the public debt of the United States, authorized by law, including debts incurred for payment of pensions and bounties for services in suppressing insurrection or rebellion, shall not be questioned. But neither the United States nor any State shall assume or pay any debt or obligation incurred in aid of insurrection or rebellion against the United States, or any claim for the loss or emancipation of any slave; but all such debts, obligations and claims shall be held illegal and void.

SECTION 5. The Congress shall have power to enforce, by appropriate legislation, the provisions of this article.

ARTICLE XV¹

SECTION 1. The right of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or by any State on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude.

SECTION 2. The Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

¹ Adopted in 1870.

APPENDIX III

GENERAL REVIEW

Give an event connected with each of the following dates:

- | | | | | | |
|---------|--------------|--------------|----------|--------------|--------------|
| 1. 1492 | 7. 1643 | 13. 1763 | 19. 1789 | 25. 1832 | 31. 1863 (2) |
| 2. 1522 | 8. 1664 | 14. 1776 | 20. 1792 | 26. 1846 | 32. 1864 |
| 3. 1588 | 9. 1682 (2) | 15. 1777 | 21. 1803 | 27. 1850 | 33. 1865 (2) |
| 4. 1607 | 10. 1689 (2) | 16. 1781 | 22. 1812 | 28. 1860 | 34. 1877 |
| 5. 1609 | 11. 1733 | 17. 1783 | 23. 1821 | 29. 1861 (2) | 35. 1896 |
| 6. 1620 | 12. 1754 | 18. 1787 (2) | 24. 1825 | 30. 1862 | 36. 1898 |

Give an event connected with each of the following places:

- | | | |
|--------------------|---------------------|----------------------|
| 1. Genoa | 12. Schenectady | 22. Detroit |
| 2. Palos | 13. Quebec (2) | 23. Harper's Ferry |
| 3. San Salvador | 14. New Orleans (3) | 24. Manassas |
| 4. St. Augustine | 15. Fort Duquesne | 25. Fort Donelson |
| 5. Jamestown | 16. Bunker Hill | 26. Chancellorsville |
| 6. New Amsterdam | 17. Saratoga | 27. Gettysburg |
| 7. Plymouth | 18. Yorktown | 28. Vicksburg |
| 8. Boston | 19. Watauga | 29. Atlanta |
| 9. Providence | 20. Marietta | 30. Appomattox |
| 10. Philadelphia | 21. Vera Cruz | 31. Manila |
| 11. Charleston (2) | | |

Tell something important about each of the following persons:

- | | | |
|-----------------------|------------------------|--------------------------------|
| 1. Columbus | 30. Thomas Jefferson | 59. John Brown |
| 2. Bartholomeu Dias | 31. General Burgoyne | 60. James Buchanan |
| 3. Queen Isabella | 32. General Cornwallis | 61. Abraham Lincoln |
| 4. Americus Vesputius | 33. General Lafayette | 62. S. F. B. Morse |
| 5. Balboa | 34. Alexander Hamilton | 63. Horace Mann |
| 6. Magellan | 35. John Adams | 64. Washington Irving |
| 7. De Soto | 36. Daniel Boone | 65. William Cullen Bryant |
| 8. Cartier | 37. Eli Whitney | 66. Edgar Allan Poe |
| 9. John Cabot | 38. Aaron Burr | 67. Henry Wadsworth Longfellow |
| 10. Drake | 39. James Madison | 68. James Russell Lowell |
| 11. Raleigh | 40. James Monroe | 69. Harriet Beecher Stowe |
| 12. Virginia Dare | 41. John Quincy Adams | 70. George B. McClellan |
| 13. John Smith | 42. Tecumseh | 71. General Grant |
| 14. George Calvert | 43. Andrew Jackson | 72. Robert E. Lee |
| 15. Henry Hudson | 44. Martin Van Buren | 73. General Sherman |
| 16. Peter Stuyvesant | 45. John C. Calhoun | 74. Andrew Johnson |
| 17. John Winthrop | 46. Henry Clay | 75. R. B. Hayes |
| 18. Roger Williams | 47. Daniel Webster | 76. James A. Garfield |
| 19. William Penn | 48. De Witt Clinton | 77. Chester A. Arthur |
| 20. Edmund Andros | 49. Robert Fulton | 78. Grover Cleveland |
| 21. Nathaniel Bacon | 50. Cyrus McCormick | 79. James G. Blaine |
| 22. James Oglethorpe | 51. W. H. Harrison | 80. Benjamin Harrison |
| 23. Champlain | 52. John Tyler | 81. William McKinley |
| 24. Father Marquette | 53. James K. Polk | 82. W. J. Bryan |
| 25. La Salle | 54. Zachary Taylor | 83. Theodore Roosevelt |
| 26. George Washington | 55. Lewis Cass | 84. William H. Taft |
| 27. General Braddock | 56. Millard Fillmore | 85. Thomas A. Edison |
| 28. Benjamin Franklin | 57. Franklin Pierce | 86. Frederick A. Cook |
| 29. General Wolfe | 58. Stephen A. Douglas | 87. Robert E. Peary |

APPENDIX IV

TOPICS FOR OUTLINE RECITATIONS

(The figures refer to *numbered sections*)

CHAPTER I. COLUMBUS DISCOVERS A NEW WORLD.

1. The birthplace and youth of Columbus.
2. The interruption of trade between Europe and the Orient.
2. What the trade of the Orient consisted of, and why Europe needed this trade.
3. Notions about the earth four hundred years ago.
4. The voyages of the Portuguese.
5. The notions of Columbus about the shape of the earth.
5. The efforts of Columbus to secure aid for his voyage.
6. The first voyage of Columbus and the great discovery; the return.
7. Other voyages of Columbus; his death.
8. What Columbus accomplished.

CHAPTER II. SPANISH VOYAGES AND EXPLORATIONS.

9. How the New World came to be called America.
10. The discovery of the Pacific Ocean.
11. The first voyage around the globe.
12. Cortés and Pizarro.
12. Ponce de Leon and the discovery of Florida.
12. De Soto and the discovery of the Mississippi River.
12. Coronado and the Seven Cities of Cibola.

CHAPTER III. ENGLAND BECOMES THE MISTRESS OF THE SEAS.

13. The claims of Spain in the New World.
13. The Line of Demarcation.
14. The discovery of North America by Cabot.
14. Leif Ericson.
15. The claims of France in North America.
16. England and her navy.
17. The deeds of Sir Francis Drake.
17. Drake's voyage around the world.
18. The Invincible Armada.
19. England's first attempts at colonization; Sir Humphrey Gilbert.
19. Sir Walter Raleigh.

CHAPTER IV. OUR COUNTRY THREE HUNDRED YEARS AGO.

- 20. Forests in America three hundred years ago.
- 21. Roads in America three hundred years ago; Indian trails.
- 21. Waterways.
- 22. Fishes, birds, and animals of the New World.
- 23. Indians—their government, religion, and occupations.
- 23. Indian warfare.
- 24. The New World a place for labor; hardships.

CHAPTER V. AROUND THE CHESAPEAKE BAY: VIRGINIA,
MARYLAND.

Introduction. The struggle for the possession of North America.

- 25. English settlements along the Atlantic coast.
- 26. Jamestown and the beginnings of Virginia.
- 26. Captain Newport.
- 27. Captain John Smith and his services to the Virginia colony.
- 28. The starving time; the arrival of Delawarr.
- 29. The cultivation of tobacco.
- 30. The first American legislature.
- 31. The beginning of slavery in Virginia.
- 32. The founding of Maryland; George Calvert.
- 33. Self-government and religious freedom in Maryland.
- 33. The quarrel between Virginia and Maryland.

CHAPTER VI. AROUND NEW YORK BAY: NEW YORK,
NEW JERSEY.

- 34. The voyage of Henry Hudson up the Hudson River.
- 34. Champlain and the Iroquois Indians.
- 34. Henry Hudson and the Iroquois.
- 34. The Dutch as traders.
- 35. The settlement of New Amsterdam.
- 36. The claims of the Dutch and English.
- 37. The patroon system.
- 38. The surrender of New Netherland to the English.
- 38. New York under the English rule.
- 39. The early history of New Jersey.

CHAPTER VII. AROUND MASSACHUSETTS BAY AND ALONG
THE PISCATAQUA RIVER: MASSACHUSETTS,
NEW HAMPSHIRE.

- 40. Why the Pilgrims left England.
- 40. The Pilgrims in Holland.
- 41. The voyage of the *Mayflower*.

- 41. The sufferings of the Plymouth colonists.
- 41. The Pilgrims and the Indians.
- 41. Government in the Plymouth colony; town-meetings.
- 42. The beginnings of the Massachusetts Bay colony.
- 42. John Winthrop.
- 42. Who the Puritans were, and why they left England.
- 42. Government in the Massachusetts Bay colony.
- 42. The growth and prosperity of Massachusetts.
- 43. The beginnings of New Hampshire; Maine.

CHAPTER VIII. ALONG THE CONNECTICUT RIVER
AND AROUND THE NARRAGANSETT BAY:
CONNECTICUT, RHODE ISLAND.

- 44. The valley of the Connecticut.
- 44. Settlements on the Connecticut River.
- 44. Thomas Hooker.
- 45. The grievances of the Indians.
- 45. The Pequot War.
- 46. The first written constitution.
- 47. New Haven; the "Bible Commonwealth."
- 47. New Haven and Connecticut united.
- 48. Roger Williams and the separation of church and state.
- 48. Anne Hutchinson.
- 48. The Rhode Island and Providence Plantations.
- 49. The New England Confederation.

CHAPTER IX. ALONG THE DELAWARE BAY AND THE
DELAWARE RIVER: PENNSYLVANIA, DELAWARE.

- 50. Delaware claimed by the Dutch.
- 51. The Swedes in Delaware.
- 52. William Penn and the Quakers.
- 53. The grant to Penn: Penn's Woodland.
- 53. Penn becomes the proprietor of Delaware.
- 53. Penn's government of his colony.
- 53. The founding of Philadelphia.
- 53. Penn and the Indians.
- 53. The growth of Philadelphia.

CHAPTER X. ALONG THE CAROLINA COAST: NORTH
CAROLINA, SOUTH CAROLINA.

- 54. The settlement of the Carolina coast.
- 54. The proprietors of the Carolinas.
- 55. The founding of North Carolina.
- 55. The Grand Model.

- 56. The settlement of South Carolina; Charleston.
- 56. The Huguenots.
- 56. Life in North Carolina and South Carolina contrasted.
- 56. Pirates along the Carolina coast.
- 56. Why the Carolinas became royal provinces.

CHAPTER XI. REBELLIONS AND INDIAN UPRISINGS.

- 57. Charles II rules Virginia harshly.
- 57. The navigation laws.
- 58. Bacon's Rebellion.
- 59. King Philip's War.
- 60. James II rules New England harshly; Andros.
- 60. Massachusetts becomes a royal province; Maine; Plymouth.

CHAPTER XII. OUR COUNTRY IN THE YEAR 1700.

- 61. The area of settlement in 1700.
- 61. The Frontier Line in 1700.
- 62. The population of the colonies in 1700.
- 62. The three classes of people in the colonies.
- 62. Indented servants.
- 62. Slavery in the colonies in 1700.
- 63. Occupations in 1700; the fur trade; manufacturing.
- 64. Education in the colonies.
- 65. Religion in the colonies.
- 66. Government in the colonies.

CHAPTER XIII. COLONIAL GROWTH BETWEEN 1700 AND 1740.

- 67. Immigration; Germans.
- 67. The Scotch-Irish.
- 68. The settlement of Georgia.
- 68. Why the colony of Georgia was founded.
- 68. The early history of Georgia.
- 69. The Westward Movement between 1700 and 1740.
- 69. The settlement of the Shenandoah valley.
- 69. The Frontier Line in 1740.

CHAPTER XIV. ALONG THE ST. LAWRENCE AND THE MISSISSIPPI: CANADA; LOUISIANA.

- 70. Champlain and the settlement of Canada.
- 70. The character of the French settlement.
- 71. James Marquette.
- 71. Robert La Salle.
- 72. The rivalry of France and England.

- 73. King William's War.
- 74. Queen Anne's War.
- 75. French colonies and forts in the Mississippi valley.
- 76. King George's War.
- 77. The claims of the French and the English in the Ohio valley.
- 77. The leaden plates.
- 77. Virginians in the Ohio valley.

CHAPTER XV. THE STRUGGLE FOR A CONTINENT: THE FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR.

- 78. A message to the French.
- 78. A sketch of the early life of George Washington.
- 78. The capture of Fort Duquesne by the French.
- 78. The importance of Fort Duquesne.
- 79. The Albany Congress.
- 79. The life of Benjamin Franklin up to 1754.
- 80. The defeat of General Braddock.
- 81. The French and Indian War; the plans of the English government.
- 81. The Acadians.
- 81. William Pitt.
- 81. The recapture of Fort Duquesne by the English.
- 81. The capture of Fort Niagara.
- 81. The capture of Quebec.
- 82. The treaty of 1763.
- 82. Pontiac's Conspiracy.

CHAPTER XVI. THE MOTHER COUNTRY AND THE COLONIES QUARREL.

- 83. The decision of England to tax the colonies.
- 83. Writs of assistance.
- 83. The Stamp Act.
- 84. Resistance to the Stamp Act.
- 84. The Stamp Act Congress.
- 84. The repeal of the Stamp Act.
- 85. The Townshend Acts.
- 85. The tax on tea.
- 86. The Boston Massacre.
- 87. Resistance to the tax on tea.
- 88. The Intolerable Acts.
- 89. The feeling of union among the colonies.

CHAPTER XVII. INDEPENDENCE DECLARED.

- 90. The First Continental Congress.
- 91. Preparations for war.

- 91. Samuel Adams and John Hancock.
- 91. Lexington.
- 91. Concord.
- 92. Ticonderoga and Crown Point.
- 93. The Second Continental Congress.
- 93. Washington made Commander-in-Chief.
- 94. Bunker Hill.
- 95. Washington in command at Boston.
- 95. Attempt to capture Quebec.
- 95. The evacuation of Boston.
- 96. Reasons for separation from England.
- 96. Thomas Jefferson.
- 96. The Declaration of Independence.

CHAPTER XVIII. THE STRUGGLE FOR INDEPENDENCE.

- 97. The British plan of campaign.
- 98. The battle of Long Island.
- 99. The Tories.
- 100. Fort Washington and Fort Lee.
- 100. The disobedience of Lee.
- 101. Battles of Trenton and Princeton.
- 102. The capture of the American capital city (Philadelphia).
- 103. Burgoyne's invasion of New York.
- 103. Bennington.
- 103. Saratoga.
- 103. Why Howe did not join with Burgoyne.
- 104. Results of Burgoyne's surrender.
- 104. The French alliance.

CHAPTER XIX. VICTORY AND INDEPENDENCE.

- 105. Valley Forge.
- 106. Monmouth.
- 107. The Tory Rangers; Wyoming Valley; Cherry Valley.
- 107. George Rogers Clark and the Northwest Territory.
- 108. The naval warfare of the Revolution; John Paul Jones.
- 109. The war in Georgia and South Carolina.
- 109. Marion and Sumter.
- 109. Camden.
- 109. The treason of Benedict Arnold.
- 109. King's Mountain and Cowpens.
- 109. Yorktown.
- 110. The treaty of peace (1783).

CHAPTER XX. FORMING A MORE PERFECT UNION.

- 111. The State constitutions.
- 111. The resemblances of the State constitutions.
- 112. The two governments working together.
- 113. The Articles of Confederation; the powers of Congress.
- 113. The form of government under the Articles of Confederation.
- 113. The weakness of the Articles of Confederation.
- 113. Shays's Rebellion.
- 113. The fear of disunion.
- 113. The possession of the Northwest Territory.
- 114. The Constitutional Convention of 1787.
- 114. The ratification of the Constitution.
- 115. The differences between the Constitution and the Articles of Confederation.

CHAPTER XXI. LAUNCHING THE "SHIP OF STATE"
(1789-1801).

- 116. The election and inauguration of George Washington.
- 117. The organization of the new government.
- 118. The first tariff.
- 118. Hamilton and the public debt.
- 118. The choice of a site for a capital.
- 119. The first Bank of the United States.
- 120. The Whisky Insurrection.
- 121. The beginnings of political parties.
- 122. France seeks aid from America.
- 123. Jay's treaty.
- 123. The retirement and death of Washington.
- 124. John Adams.
- 124. The X. Y. Z. affair.
- 125. The Alien and Sedition Laws.
- 125. The Virginia and Kentucky Resolutions: Nullification.

CHAPTER XXII. ALONG THE KENTUCKY, THE TENNESSEE,
AND THE OHIO: KENTUCKY; TENNESSEE; THE
NORTHWEST TERRITORY.

Introduction. The Westward Movement.

- 126. The Westward Movement in colonial times.
- 127. Why Kentucky was settled first.
- 127. Daniel Boone and the settlement of Kentucky.
- 127. The early history of Kentucky.
- 128. The beginnings of Tennessee; Watauga.
- 128. Government at Watauga.
- 128. John Sevier and the State of Franklin.

- 128. The admission of Tennessee to the Union.
- 129. The settlement of western Pennsylvania; the Scotch-Irish.
- 129. The Ordinance of 1787.
- 130. The beginnings of Ohio; Marietta; Cincinnati.
- 130. Mad Anthony Wayne and the Indians.
- 130. The Territory Northwest of the Ohio.

CHAPTER XXIII. OUR COUNTRY IN THE YEAR 1800.

- 131. The Frontier Line in 1800.
- 131. Population in 1800; cities.
- 132. Methods of agriculture in 1800.
- 132. Farm products in 1800.
- 132. Whitney's cotton-gin.
- 132. The cotton-gin and slavery.
- 133. Manufacturing in 1800.
- 134. Foreign commerce in 1800.
- 134. Domestic commerce in 1800; roads.
- 134. The post-office; postage.
- 135. The right of suffrage in 1800.
- 135. Education in 1800.
- 135. Useful inventions.

CHAPTER XXIV. THE ADMINISTRATION OF THOMAS JEFFERSON (1801-09): THE GREAT EXPANSION.

- 136. The election of Jefferson.
- 136. Washington in 1801.
- 136. Jeffersonian simplicity.
- 136. Jeffersonian principles.
- 137. The Louisiana question.
- 137. The Louisiana Purchase.
- 138. The exploration of Lewis and Clark.
- 138. The exploration of Zebulon Pike.
- 139. The work of the Algerine pirates.
- 140. The unfriendly conduct of England and France.
- 140. The impressment of American seamen.
- 140. The *Chesapeake* and the *Leopard*.
- 141. The Embargo.
- 142. The treason of Aaron Burr.

CHAPTER XXV. THE ADMINISTRATION OF JAMES MADISON (1809-17): THE WAR FOR COMMERCIAL INDEPENDENCE.

- 143. The election of James Madison; his character.
- 144. Injuries to American commerce.
- 145. Drifting toward war.

- 145. The United States unprepared for war.
- 146. The invasion of Canada.
- 147. Naval engagements upon the sea; the *Constitution* and the *Guerrière*.
- 147. Naval victories upon the Great Lakes.
- 148. Chippewa and Lundy's Lane.
- 149. The war along the Atlantic coast.
- 150. The Hartford Convention.
- 151. The battle of New Orleans.
- 152. The treaty of Ghent; results of the war.
- 153. The tariff of 1816; protection to American manufacturing.

CHAPTER XXVI. ALONG THE OHIO RIVER: OHIO, INDIANA,
ILLINOIS.

- 154. Ohio becomes a State.
- 154. The sale of public lands.
- 155. The National Road.
- 156. Steamboats.
- 156. Steamboats on Western waters.
- 157. Indiana; slavery; Tippecanoe.
- 157. Indiana becomes a State.
- 158. Illinois; Fort Dearborn.
- 159. Life in the Middle West in the early days.

CHAPTER XXVII. AROUND THE GULF OF MEXICO: LOUISIANA,
MISSISSIPPI, ALABAMA. MISSOURI.

- 160. The transfer of Louisiana to the United States.
- 160. The early history of Louisiana.
- 161. Mississippi Territory.
- 161. The Creek War.
- 161. Fort Mimms.
- 161. The admission of Mississippi to the Union.
- 162. Alabama.
- 163. Missouri Territory.
- 163. Missouri admitted to the Union.
- 164. Changes between 1800 and 1820.

CHAPTER XXVIII. MONROE AND JOHN QUINCY ADAMS.

- 165. James Monroe.
- 166. The "era of good feeling."
- 167. War with the Seminoles; Florida.
- 168. The slavery question in 1820.
- 168. The Missouri Compromise.
- 169. How the balance of power between the North and the South was preserved.

- 170. The Monroe Doctrine.
- 171. John Quincy Adams; his election; his character.
- 172. The "tariff of abominations."
- 172. How it was received in the South.

CHAPTER XXIX. JACKSON AND VAN BUREN.

- 173. Andrew Jackson; his election.
- 174. The character of Jackson.
- 175. The rule of the people.
- 176. The spoils system.
- 177. The tariff and nullification.
- 177. The speech of Hayne on nullification.
- 177. Webster's Reply to Hayne.
- 177. The action of South Carolina in respect to nullification.
- 177. Jackson and nullification.
- 178. Jackson and the Bank of the United States.
- 178. The election of 1832.
- 178. The removal of the deposits and the vote of censure.
- 179. The election of Van Buren.
- 179. The panic of 1837.
- 179. The Independent Treasury.

CHAPTER XXX. DEVELOPMENT BETWEEN 1820 AND 1840.

- 180. The extension of the National Road
- 181. The desire of the East to trade with the West.
- 181. The building and opening of the Erie Canal.
- 181. The effects of the Erie Canal.
- 181. The Pennsylvania Canal.
- 182. The beginning of railroad building; the Baltimore and Ohio.
- 183. Michigan Territory.
- 183. Steamboat navigation on the Great Lakes; the admission of Michigan.
- 184. Development in the South; the cotton kingdom.
- 185. Arkansas.
- 186. The removal of the Indians.
- 187. Growth between 1820 and 1840.
- 187. The Frontier Line in 1840.

CHAPTER XXXI. HARRISON AND TYLER; POLK; THE GREAT WESTWARD EXTENSION.

- 188. The election of 1840.
- 189. Death of Harrison; John Tyler becomes President
- 189. Tyler loses the support of Congress.

- 189. Dorr's Rebellion.
- 190. The settlement of Texas.
- 190. Stephen Austin; San Jacinto.
- 190. The annexation of Texas.
- 191. Claims upon Oregon.
- 191. Early settlement of Oregon.
- 191. The Oregon treaty.
- 192. Polk's desire for California.
- 192. The disputed territory.
- 192. The war with Mexico; Monterey; Buena Vista; Vera Cruz; the city of Mexico.
- 193. The capture of New Mexico and California.
- 193. The treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo.
- 193. The Gadsden Purchase.

CHAPTER XXXII. DEVELOPMENT BETWEEN 1840 AND 1850.

- 194. The Preëemption Law; immigration.
- 195. Iowa.
- 195. Wisconsin; the Black Hawk War.
- 195. Minnesota.
- 195. The pioneer history of the Upper Lake and Upper Mississippi States.
- 196. Chicago.
- 197. California before the conquest; mission life.
- 198. The discovery of gold in California.
- 199. The routes to California; the Santa Fé and Oregon trail.
- 199. Hardships of travel.
- 200. California becomes a State.
- 201. Oregon becomes a State.
- 202. The beginnings of Utah; irrigation.

CHAPTER XXXIII. THE ADMINISTRATION OF ZACHARY TAYLOR AND MILLARD FILLMORE (1849-53).

- 203. The election of 1848.
- 204. The number of slaves; the number of slaveholders.
- 204. The price of slaves.
- 204. The treatment of slaves.
- 204. Sentiment in respect to slavery.
- 204. The abolition movement; William Lloyd Garrison.
- 204. Fugitive slaves; underground railroad.
- 205. The Wilmot Proviso.
- 205. Important questions connected with slavery.
- 205. The Compromise of 1850.
- 206. The Fugitive-Slave Law of 1850.
- 207. The passing away of three great leaders.

CHAPTER XXXIV. FRANKLIN PIERCE; JAMES BUCHANAN.

- 208. The election of 1852; Franklin Pierce.
- 209. The Kansas-Nebraska Bill.
- 209. Popular sovereignty.
- 209. The effect of the Kansas-Nebraska Bill.
- 210. The struggle in Kansas.
- 211. The attack upon Sumner.
- 212. The election of 1856; the rise of the Republican party.
- 212. The Know-Nothing party.
- 213. The Dred Scott decision.
- 214. The life of Abraham Lincoln up to 1858.
- 214. The Lincoln-Douglas debates.
- 215. John Brown's Raid.
- 216. The election of 1860.

CHAPTER XXXV. PROGRESS IN CIVILIZATION BETWEEN
1800 AND 1860.

- 217. The development of agriculture between 1800 and 1860.
- 218. The growth of manufacturing between 1800 and 1860.
- 219. The growth of commerce between 1800 and 1860.
- 220. The growth of cities.
- 220. The center of population.
- 221. The telegraph.
- 221. The sewing-machine.
- 221. Patents.

CHAPTER XXXVI. PROGRESS IN CIVILIZATION BETWEEN
1800 AND 1860 (CONTINUED).

- 222. Public education in New England; Horace Mann.
- 222. Public education in the Middle and Southern States.
- 222. Public education in the West.
- 222. Higher education.
- 223. The growth of American literature.
- 223. Some great authors and some great books.
- 224. Civilization in 1860.

CHAPTER XXXVII. THE BEGINNINGS OF A GREAT CONFLICT.

- 225. The South loses power.
- 225. Lincoln feared at the South.
- 225. Slavery becomes a moral question.
- 225. The Union a house divided against itself.
- 226. Attempts at compromise.

- 227. The first secession.
- 227. The Confederate States of America.
- 227. Jefferson Davis.
- 227. The *Star of the West* affair.
- 228. Lincoln's inaugural address.
- 229. Lincoln not supported by the leaders.
- 229. The firing upon Fort Sumter.
- 229. Lincoln calls for troops.
- 229. The second secession.

CHAPTER XXXVIII. THE CIVIL WAR: THE FIRST CLASHES.

- 230. The strength of the North and the South compared.
- 231. The clash in Baltimore.
- 231. The clash in Missouri.
- 231. West Virginia.
- 232. Manassas or Bull Run.
- 233. McClellan organizes the army.
- 233. On to Richmond.
- 234. The blockade.
- 235. The capture of Mason and Slidell.
- 235. The attitude of England.

CHAPTER XXXIX. THE CIVIL WAR: FROM FORT DONELSON TO CHANCELLORSVILLE.

- 236. The plan of campaign of the Union forces.
- 237. Fort Donelson and Fort Henry.
- 237. General Grant: his life up to 1860; his character.
- 238. Shiloh.
- 239. Opening the Mississippi.
- 240. Bragg's raid into Kentucky; Murfreesboro.
- 241. The *Merrimac* and the *Monitor*.
- 242. The Peninsular Campaign.
- 242. General Robert E. Lee: his life and character.
- 242. Stonewall Jackson in the Shenandoah valley.
- 242. The fighting around Richmond.
- 243. The second battle of Manassas; Antietam; Fredericksburg.
- 244. The Emancipation Proclamation.
- 245. The battle of Chancellorsville.
- 245. Jackson's last charge.
- 246. Naval warfare; the blockade.
- 246. The *Alabama*.
- 246. The Geneva Award.

CHAPTER XL. THE CIVIL WAR: THE CLOSE OF THE STRUGGLE.

- 247. Gettysburg.
- 248. The fall of Vicksburg.
- 249. Chickamauga and Chattanooga.
- 250. Grant in command of all the armies.
- 250. Grant and Sherman agree upon a final plan of campaign.
- 250. Sherman's march to Atlanta.
- 250. From Atlanta to the sea.
- 251. The Wilderness, Spottsylvania, and Cold Harbor.
- 251. Petersburg.
- 251. Sheridan in the Shenandoah valley.
- 251. Appomattox Court-House.
- 252. The cost of the war.
- 253. How the expenses of the war were met.
- 253. National banks.

CHAPTER XLI. BINDING UP THE NATION'S WOUNDS.

- 254. The death of Lincoln.
- 255. Andrew Johnson.
- 256. The task which faced Congress in 1865.
- 256. Amnesty and pardon.
- 256. The Thirteenth Amendment.
- 256. The Freedmen's Bureau.
- 256. The Civil Rights Bill and the Fourteenth Amendment.
- 256. The Fifteenth Amendment.
- 256. How Congress dealt with the seceded States.
- 257. Johnson's policy in respect to the seceded States.
- 257. The impeachment of Johnson.
- 258. The French in Mexico.
- 258. The purchase of Alaska.
- 259. The election of Grant.
- 260. The "carpet-baggers."
- 260. The Ku-Klux Klan.
- 261. The great fire in Chicago; in Boston.
- 261. The panic of 1873.
- 261. The Centennial Exposition.
- 262. The election of 1876.
- 262. The Electoral Commission.
- 263. The removal of the troops from the South.

CHAPTER XLII. THE NEW WEST.

Introduction. The Westward Movement after the Civil War.

- 264. The Homestead Act; transcontinental railways; immigration.

- 265. The Union Pacific.
- 265. Nebraska.
- 265. Colorado.
- 265. Wyoming.
- 265. Utah.
- 266. The discovery of gold in southwestern Montana.
- 266. Steamboat traffic upon the Upper Missouri.
- 266. The Northern Pacific.
- 266. Custer and the Indians.
- 266. The Dakotas, Montana, Washington, and Idaho.
- 266. The rapid growth of the New Northwest.
- 267. The Atchison, Topeka and Santa Fé.
- 267. Western Texas.
- 267. Oklahoma.
- 267. New Mexico and Arizona.
- 267. The initiative and referendum.

CHAPTER XLIII. A UNITED PEOPLE.

- 268. The presidential election of 1880.
- 269. The death of Garfield.
- 269. President Arthur.
- 270. The merit system.
- 271. The election of 1884.
- 272. Presidential succession.
- 272. The Interstate Commerce Act.
- 273. The campaign of 1888.
- 274. The McKinley Tariff.
- 274. The Anti-Trust Law.
- 274. The Sherman Silver Purchase Act.
- 275. The election of 1892.
- 276. The repeal of the purchase clause of the Sherman Act.
- 277. The Wilson Tariff; the Income Tax.
- 278. The World's Columbian Exposition.
- 279. The Chicago riots.
- 280. The Venezuela boundary dispute.

CHAPTER XLIV. A UNITED PEOPLE (CONTINUED).

- 281. The presidential election of 1896.
- 282. The Dingley Law.
- 282. The Cuban rebellion.
- 282. The sinking of the *Maine*.
- 282. Dewey at Manila.
- 282. Hobson and the *Merrimac*.

- 282. El Caney and San Juan Hill.
- 282. Sampson and Schley at Santiago.
- 282. The treaty of peace and the results of the war.
- 282. Aguinaldo.
- 283. The reëlection of McKinley; his death.
- 283. Theodore Roosevelt.
- 284. The anthracite coal strike.
- 285. The St. Louis Exposition.
- 286. The Panama Canal.
- 287. The election of 1904.
- 288. The Rate Law of 1906.
- 289. The San Francisco earthquake.
- 290. The election of 1908.
- 290. The Payne Tariff.
- 291. The discovery of the North Pole.

CHAPTER XLV. A LEADER AMONG THE NATIONS.

- 292. Progress in agriculture since 1860.
- 293. Progress in manufacturing since 1860.
- 294. Mining.
- 295. Progress in commerce since 1860.
- 295. The transatlantic cable.
- 295. The telegraph and telephone.
- 295. Progress in railroad building.
- 296. The age of electricity.
- 297. Progress in education.
- 298. The New South.
- 299. Population and wealth.

APPENDIX V

READING LIST

Below is a list of the books to which reference is made at the end of the chapters. Most of the references are made to the first twenty books, and these twenty books are strongly recommended as a working library to accompany the study of this history.

The key to the publishers is as follows:

A. = American Book Company, New York.	Lip. = J. B. Lippincott Co., Philadelphia.
Ap. = D. Appleton & Co., New York.	Lit. = Little, Brown & Co., Boston.
B. = A. S. Barnes & Co., New York.	Long. = Longmans, Green & Co., New York.
C. = Century Co., New York.	M. = Macmillan Co., New York.
G. = Ginn & Co., Boston.	Mc. = A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago.
Har. = Harper & Bros., New York.	P. = G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York.
Hou. = Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston.	Sc. = Charles Scribner's Sons, New York.
J. = B. F. Johnson Pub. Co., Richmond, Va.	Sil. = Silver, Burdett & Co., New York.

1. Columbus and Magellan, by T. B. Lawler. G. 1905. Pages 151. Price 50c.
2. The Discoverers and Explorers of America, by Charles Morris. Lip. 1906. Pages 344. Price \$1.25.
3. Source Book of American History. Edited by A. B. Hart. M. 1903. Pages 408. Price 60c.
4. American Explorers, by W. F. Gordy. Sc. 1906. Pages 206. Price 50c.
5. The Struggle for a Continent. Edited from the writings of Francis Parkman by Pelham Edgar. Lit. 1902. Pages 542. Price \$1.50.
6. American Pioneers, by W. A. Mowry. Sil. 1905. Pages 363. Price 65c.
7. The Story of the Thirteen Colonies, by H. A. Guerber. A. 1898. Pages 342. Price 65c.
8. Heroes of Progress in America, by Charles Morris. Lip. 1906. Pages 344. Price \$1.25.
9. Our First Century, by George Cary Eggleston. B. 1905. Pages 268. Price \$1.20.
10. Four American Indians, by E. L. Whitney and F. M. Perry. A. 1904. Pages 240. Price 50c.
11. Decisive Battles of America. Edited by Ripley Hitchcock. Har. 1909. Pages 397. Price \$1.50.
12. Stories of the Great West, by Theodore Roosevelt. C. 1909. Pages 314. Price 60c.
13. The War for Independence, by John Fiske. Hou. 1894. Pages 200. Price 75c.
14. Poems of American History, by Burton Egbert Stevenson. Hou. 1907. Pages 704. Price \$3.

15. Side Lights on American History, by H. W. Elson. Mc. 1899. Two volumes: Vol. I, pages 398; Vol. II, pages 410. Price 75c.
16. Life in the Eighteenth Century, by George Cary Eggleston. B. 1905. Pages 264. Price \$1.20.
17. American Inventions and Inventors, by W. A. Mowry. Sil. 1900. Pages 298. Price 65c.
18. Economic History of the United States, by E. L. Bogart. Long. 1907. Pages 522. Price \$1.75.
19. The Louisiana Purchase, by Ripley Hitchcock. G. 1903. Pages 349. Price 75c.
20. The Making of the Ohio Valley, by S. A. Drake. Sc. 1894. Pages 269. Price \$1.50.
21. School History of Mississippi, by F. L. Riley. J. 1900. Pages 437. Price 75c.
22. Makers of American History, by J. A. C. Chandler and O. P. Chitwood. Sil. 1906. Pages 319. Price 60c.
23. From Trail to Railway, by A. P. Brigham. G. 1907. Pages 188. Price 60c.
24. The Conquest of the Southwest, by C. T. Brady. Ap. 1905. Pages 291. Price \$1.50.
25. Pilots of the Republic, by A. B. Hulburt. Mc. 1906. Pages 368. Price \$1.50.
26. Iowa, by William Salter. Mc. 1905. Pages 289. Price \$1.20.
27. Michigan, by T. M. Cooley. Hou. 1905. Pages 402. Price \$1.25.
28. Minnesota, by W. W. Folwell. Hou. 1908. Pages 365. Price \$1.25.
29. History of the Pacific Northwest, by Joseph Schafer. M. 1905. Pages 321. Price \$1.25.
30. The Boys' Life of Abraham Lincoln, by Helen Nicolay. C. 1906. Pages 307. Price \$1.50.
31. Historic Towns of New England. Edited by Lyman Powell. P. 1900. Pages 599. Price \$3.
32. Historic Towns of the Middle States. Edited by Lyman Powell. P. 1900. Pages 439. Price \$3.
33. Historic Towns of the Southern States. Edited by Lyman Powell. P. 1900. Pages 604. Price \$3.
34. Historic Towns of the Western States. Edited by Lyman Powell. P. 1900. Pages 702. Price \$3.

APPENDIX VI

Review the great subjects of American history, following the outlines given below:

I. DISCOVERY AND EXPLORATION.

1. Christopher Columbus (p. 1).
2. Trade between Europe and the Orient (p. 1).
3. Why a new route to the Orient was necessary (p. 2).
4. The voyages of the Portuguese (p. 3).
5. The great voyage of Christopher Columbus (pp. 4-7).
6. How the New World came to be called America (p. 9).
7. Balboa discovers the Pacific Ocean (p. 10).
8. The great voyage of Magellan (pp. 10-12).
9. Spanish explorations in North America (De Leon, De Soto, Coronado) (pp. 12-14).
10. Voyages and discoveries of the English (Cabot, Drake) (pp. 15-20).
11. The first discoveries of the French (Jacques Cartier) (p. 17).
12. The explorations of Champlain (p. 94).
13. The discoveries of Marquette (p. 95).
14. The discoveries of La Salle (p. 96).

II. INDIANS AND INDIAN WARS.

1. Why the natives of the New World were called Indians (p. 6).
2. The occupations of the Indians; their religion; their government; their manner of warfare (pp. 26-28).
3. The Iroquois Indians (pp. 27, 39).
4. The Pequot War (p. 56).
5. King Philip's War (p. 77).
6. Pontiac's Conspiracy (p. 113).
7. The battle of Fallen Timbers (p. 176).
8. The battle of Tippecanoe (p. 209); Fort Dearborn (p. 210).
9. The Creek War (p. 216).
10. The war with the Seminoles (p. 222).
11. The removal of the Indians (p. 247).
12. The Black Hawk War (p. 265).
13. Indian reservations; Custer's defeat (p. 382).
14. Indian Territory (p. 385).

III. THE CLAIMS OF DIFFERENT NATIONS AT DIFFERENT TIMES.

1. The New World claimed by Spain (p. 15).
2. The claims of Portugal (the Line of Demarcation) (p. 15, note).
3. The claims of England (pp. 17, 41).
4. The claims of France (p. 17).
5. The claims of the Dutch (p. 41).
6. The claims of the Swedes (p. 62).
7. French claims in the Mississippi valley (pp. 96, 99).
8. The Ohio valley claimed by both French and English (pp. 101-102).
9. The Oregon country claimed by England and the United States (p. 255).
10. A part of Texas claimed by both Mexico and the United States (p. 257).

IV. THE FRENCH IN NORTH AMERICA.

1. The first French settlements (p. 17).
2. The French in northern New York (p. 39).
3. The French power in Canada (pp. 94-96).
4. Marquette and La Salle (pp. 95, 96).
5. Rivalry between France and England (p. 96).
6. King William's War (p. 98).
7. Queen Anne's War (p. 99).
8. French colonies and forts in the Mississippi valley (p. 100).
9. King George's War (p. 100).
10. The French claim the Ohio valley (pp. 101, 102).
11. The French capture Fort Duquesne (p. 106).
12. The defeat of General Braddock (p. 108).
13. The French and Indian War (see outline under heading WARS, p. xliv).
14. The French lose their possessions in North America (p. 113).
15. France assists the colonies (p. 139).
16. The United States neutral as between France and England (p. 163).
17. The X. Y. Z. affair (p. 165).
18. The French regain Louisiana; the Louisiana Purchase (pp. 187-189).
19. The French in Mexico (p. 368).

V. ENGLISH COLONIZATION.

1. England strengthens her navy (pp. 17-19).
2. The deeds of Sir Francis Drake (pp. 19, 20).
3. The destruction of the Invincible Armada (p. 20).
4. England's first attempts at colonization (pp. 20-22).

5. General character of English settlements along the Atlantic coast (p. 30).
6. Virginia.
 - (1) The settlement of Jamestown (p. 31).
 - (2) Captain John Smith (pp. 32, 33).
 - (3) The Starving Time (p. 33).
 - (4) The cultivation of tobacco (p. 34).
 - (5) The first American legislature (p. 34).
 - (6) Slavery in Virginia (p. 35).
 - (7) Charles II rules Virginia harshly (p. 75).
 - (8) Bacon's Rebellion (p. 76).
 - (9) The settlement of the Shenandoah valley (pp. 90-92).
7. Maryland.
 - (1) George Calvert (p. 35).
 - (2) The first settlement in Maryland (p. 35).
 - (3) Religious freedom in Maryland (p. 36).
 - (4) Maryland and Virginia quarrel (p. 37).
8. New York.
 - (1) Dutch settlements around New York Bay (the Iroquois Indians, Champlain, fur-trading) (pp. 38, 39).
 - (2) New Amsterdam (p. 40).
 - (3) The claims of the Dutch and the English (p. 41).
 - (4) The patroons (p. 42).
 - (5) New Netherland surrenders to the English (p. 43).
9. New Jersey.
 - (1) The settlement of New Jersey (p. 44).
 - (2) The government and early history of New Jersey (p. 45).
10. Massachusetts.
 - (1) The Pilgrims in England and Holland (pp. 46, 47).
 - (2) The Plymouth colony (pp. 47-49).
 - (3) The Massachusetts Bay colony (John Winthrop) (pp. 49-52).
 - (4) Andros (p. 78).
 - (5) Maine, Plymouth, and Massachusetts Bay united (p. 79).
11. New Hampshire (pp. 52-54).
12. Connecticut.
 - (1) The river settlements (pp. 55, 56).
 - (2) Trouble with the Indians; the Pequot War (pp. 56, 57).
 - (3) The first written constitution (p. 57).
 - (4) New Haven (pp. 57, 58).
 - (5) Andros (p. 78).
13. Rhode Island.
 - (1) Roger Williams (p. 58).
 - (2) The separation of church and state (p. 59).
 - (3) The Rhode Island settlements (p. 60).

14. Delaware.

- (1) Delaware claimed by the Dutch (p. 62).
- (2) The Swedes in Delaware (p. 62).
- (3) Penn becomes the proprietor of Delaware (p. 63).

15. Pennsylvania.

- (1) William Penn (the Quakers) (pp. 63, 64).
- (2) Penn's laws (pp. 65, 66).
- (3) Philadelphia (pp. 66, 67).
- (4) Germans in Pennsylvania (pp. 87, 88).
- (5) Scotch-Irish in Pennsylvania (p. 88).

16. North Carolina.

- (1) Settled by Virginians (p. 69).
- (2) The grant to the proprietors; the Grand Model (pp. 69, 70).

17. South Carolina.

- (1) Charleston (pp. 70, 71).
- (2) Life in the Carolinas; piracy (pp. 72, 73).

18. Georgia (pp. 89, 90).

VI. MEANS OF TRANSPORTATION.

- 1. Indian trails (p. 24).
- 2. Roads in 1700 (p. 80).
- 3. Roads in 1800 (turnpikes) (p. 182).
- 4. The National Road (p. 207).
- 5. Steamboat navigation (p. 207); ocean steamships (p. 262).
- 6. The extension of the National Road (pp. 239, 240).
- 7. The Erie Canal (pp. 240-242, 244); the Pennsylvania Canal (p. 242).
- 8. Railroads.
 - (1) The Baltimore and Ohio Railroad (pp. 243, 244).
 - (2) Railroads as a factor in Western development (pp. 267, 269, 300).
 - (3) The great transcontinental railroads.
 - a. The Union Pacific (pp. 376-380).
 - b. The Northern Pacific (pp. 380-384).
 - c. The Atchison, Topeka and Santa Fé (pp. 384-386).
- 9. The Oregon and Santa Fé trails (pp. 270-272).
- 10. The Panama Canal (pp. 404-406).
- 11. Electricity as a motive power (pp. 414-416).
- 12. Flying-machines (p. 415, note).

VII. SLAVERY.

- 1. The beginning of slavery in Virginia (p. 35).
- 2. Slavery in the Carolinas (p. 72).
- 3. Slavery in the colonies in 1700; white servants (p. 82).

4. Slavery and the Ordinance of 1787 (p. 174).
5. Slavery in 1800; the cotton-gin (p. 180).
6. Slavery in Indiana and Illinois (pp. 208-210).
7. Slavery in the Gulf States (p. 223).
8. The Missouri Compromise (pp. 223, 224).
9. How the balance of power between the slave States and free States was preserved (pp. 224, 225).
10. The cotton kingdom (p. 246); the annexation of Texas (p. 254).
11. Slavery in the United States in 1850.
 - (1) The number of slaves and of slaveholders (p. 277).
 - (2) The price of slaves (p. 278).
 - (3) How slaves were treated (pp. 279, 280).
 - (4) The abolition movement (p. 280).
 - (5) Fugitive-slave laws (p. 281).
 - (6) The underground railroad (p. 282).
12. The Wilmot Proviso (p. 282).
13. The Compromise of 1850 (pp. 282-284).
14. The Fugitive-Slave Law of 1850 (p. 284).
15. The Kansas-Nebraska Bill (pp. 287-289).
16. The struggle in Kansas over slavery (pp. 289, 290).
17. The rise of the Republican party (p. 291).
18. The Dred Scott decision (p. 292).
19. The Lincoln-Douglas debates (pp. 293, 295).
20. John Brown's Raid (p. 295).
21. The presidential election of 1860 (p. 296).
22. "Uncle Tom's Cabin" (p. 310).
23. A house divided against itself (pp. 314-317).
24. Attempts at compromise (p. 317).
25. The Emancipation Proclamation (p. 342).
26. The Thirteenth, Fourteenth, and Fifteenth Amendments (pp. 365-367).

VIII. GOVERNMENT.

1. The first American legislature (p. 34).
2. Government in the New England Colonies (pp. 49, 52, 57, 58, 59).
3. Steps in the formation of the Union.
 - (1) The New England Confederation (p. 60).
 - (2) The Albany Congress (p. 108).
 - (3) The Stamp Act Congress (p. 116).
 - (4) The First Continental Congress (p. 122).
 - (5) The Second Continental Congress (p. 125).
 - (6) The Declaration of Independence (p. 129).
 - (7) The Articles of Confederation (pp. 151-154).
 - (8) The formation of the Constitution (pp. 154-157).
4. How the colonies were governed (in 1700) (pp. 85, 86).

5. The State Constitutions (p. 150).
6. The State government and the central government working together (p. 151).
7. The Articles of Confederation (pp. 151-154).
8. The Constitutional Convention of 1787 (pp. 154-157).
9. The difference between the Articles of Confederation and the Constitution of 1787 (pp. 156, 157).
10. The organization of the national government under the Constitution (pp. 160, 161).
11. The Ordinance of 1787 (p. 173).
12. Territorial government (p. 174, note).
13. The right of suffrage (pp. 86, 183, 231, 251, note, 366, 383).
14. The Fifteenth Amendment (p. 366).
15. The spoils system (pp. 231, 232, 389).
16. The merit system (p. 389).
17. The initiative and referendum (p. 386, note).

IX. WARS (OTHER THAN INDIAN WARS).

1. King William's War (p. 98).
2. Queen Anne's War (p. 99).
3. King George's War (p. 100).
4. The French and Indian War.
 - (1) The defeat of General Braddock (p. 108).
 - (2) The English plan of campaign (p. 109).
 - (3) The Acadians (p. 110).
 - (4) The second movement against Fort Duquesne (p. 111).
 - (5) Fort Niagara (p. 111).
 - (6) Quebec (p. 112).
 - (7) The treaty of 1763 (p. 113).
5. The War of the Revolution.
 - (1) The events leading up to the war.
 - a. The quarrel about taxation (writs of assistance, Stamp Act) (pp. 114, 115).
 - b. Resistance to the Stamp Act (pp. 115, 116).
 - c. Stamp Act Congress (p. 116).
 - d. The Townshend Acts (pp. 116, 117).
 - e. The Boston Massacre (p. 117).
 - f. The colonies refuse to pay the tax on tea (p. 118).
 - g. The Intolerable Acts (p. 119).
 - h. The colonies stand together (p. 120).
 - i. The First Continental Congress (p. 122).
 - j. The fights at Lexington and Concord (pp. 123, 124).
 - k. Ticonderoga and Crown Point (p. 125).
 - l. The Second Continental Congress (p. 125).

- m.* Bunker Hill (p. 126).
- n.* Washington placed in charge of the American army; the British withdraw from Boston (pp. 126-128).
- o.* The Declaration of Independence (pp. 128-130).
- (2) The leading events and battles of the Revolution.
 - a.* The British plan of campaign (p. 131).
 - b.* Long Island (the Tories) (pp. 131-133).
 - c.* Fort Washington and Fort Lee (p. 133).
 - d.* Trenton and Princeton (pp. 133, 134).
 - e.* The capture of Philadelphia (p. 135).
 - f.* Saratoga (pp. 136, 137); importance of this battle (pp. 138, 139).
 - g.* Washington at Valley Forge (p. 140).
 - h.* Monmouth (p. 141).
 - i.* War on the Frontier (p. 142).
 - j.* Naval warfare (John Paul Jones) (p. 143).
 - k.* War at the South; Camden, King's Mountain (pp. 143-145).
 - l.* Yorktown (p. 146).
- (3) The treaty of peace (1783) (p. 147).
- 6. The war with the Algerine pirates (p. 191).
- 7. The War of 1812.
 - (1) Events leading up to the war of 1812.
 - a.* The unfriendly conduct of England and France (pp. 191, 192).
 - b.* The Embargo (p. 193); the Non-Intercourse Act (p. 196).
 - c.* England and France continue to harass American commerce (p. 196).
 - d.* Drifting toward war (p. 197).
 - e.* Declaration of war (p. 198).
 - (2) The battles of the War of 1812.
 - a.* The attack upon Canada (p. 199).
 - b.* The struggle upon the sea and upon the Great Lakes (pp. 199-201).
 - c.* Chippewa and Lundy's Lane (p. 201).
 - d.* The war along the Atlantic coast (the burning of Washington (p. 201).
 - e.* The battle of New Orleans (p. 203).
 - (3) The treaty of Ghent; results of the war (pp. 203, 204).
- 8. The Mexican War.
 - (1) The disputed territory (p. 257).
 - (2) Monterey, Buena Vista, Vera Cruz, Molino del Rey, the city of Mexico (pp. 258, 259).

- (3) The capture of New Mexico and California (p. 259).
- (4) The treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo (p. 259).
- 9. The Civil War.
 - (1) Events leading up to the Civil War.
 - a. A house divided against itself (pp. 314-317).
 - b. Failure of attempts at compromise (p. 317).
 - c. The first secession (seven Southern States) (pp. 317-319).
 - d. The *Star of the West* affair (p. 319).
 - e. The firmness of Lincoln (p. 320).
 - f. The firing upon Fort Sumter; the call for troops (pp. 321, 322).
 - g. The second secession (four States) (p. 323).
 - (2) The leading events and battles of the Civil War.
 - a. The strength of the North and South compared (pp. 325, 326).
 - b. The first clashes (in Baltimore; in Missouri; in West Virginia) (pp. 326, 327).
 - c. The first battle of Bull Run (p. 327).
 - d. McClellan organizes the Army of the Potomac (p. 328).
 - e. The blockade (p. 329).
 - f. The capture of Mason and Slidell (p. 330).
 - g. The plan of campaign of the Union forces (p. 333).
 - h. Fort Donelson and Fort McHenry (p. 334).
 - i. The battle of Shiloh (p. 335).
 - j. Opening the Mississippi (p. 337).
 - k. Bragg's raid into Kentucky; Murfreesboro (p. 338).
 - l. The *Merrimac* and the *Monitor* (p. 339).
 - m. McClellan's Peninsular Campaign (pp. 339-342).
 - n. The second battle of Manassas; Antietam; Fredericksburg (p. 342).
 - o. The Emancipation Proclamation (p. 342).
 - p. The battle of Chancellorsville (pp. 343-345).
 - q. Naval warfare; the blockade; the *Alabama* (pp. 345, 346).
 - r. The battle of Gettysburg (p. 349).
 - s. The fall of Vicksburg (p. 350).
 - t. Chickamauga and Chattanooga (pp. 351-353).
 - u. Sherman's capture of Atlanta (p. 354).
 - v. Sherman's March to the Sea (pp. 354, 355).
 - w. Grant's campaign against Lee (pp. 355-357).
 - x. The surrender of Lee at Appomattox (pp. 357, 358).
 - (3) The cost of the Civil War (pp. 358, 359).
 - (4) How Congress met the expense of the war (pp. 359-361).

10. The Spanish-American War.

- (1) Relations between the United States and Cuba (p. 398).
- (2) The destruction of the *Maine* (p. 399).
- (3) Manila (p. 400).
- (4) Santiago (p. 401).
- (5) Results of the war (p. 402).

X. TREATIES.

1. Ryswick (p. 99).
2. Utrecht (p. 99).
3. Aix-la-Chapelle (p. 101).
4. Paris (1763) (p. 113).
5. Alliance with France (p. 139).
6. Paris (1783) (p. 147).
7. Jay's treaty (p. 164).
8. The Tripolitan treaty (p. 191).
9. Ghent (p. 204).
10. The Webster-Ashburton treaty (p. 252, note).
11. The Oregon treaty (p. 256).
12. Guadalupe Hidalgo (p. 259).
13. The treaty with Spain (p. 401).
14. The Clayton-Bulwer treaty (p. 405).
15. The Hay-Pauncefote treaty (p. 405).

XI. THE WESTWARD MOVEMENT.

1. The settlement of the Connecticut valley (p. 56).
2. The Frontier Line in 1700 (p. 80).
3. The settlement of the Shenandoah valley (pp. 90-93).
4. The Westward Movement in colonial times (p. 168).
5. Kentucky (pp. 169-171).
6. Tennessee (pp. 171-173).
7. The settlement of western Pennsylvania (p. 173); the Northwest Territory (p. 174).
8. The beginnings of Ohio (pp. 174-176).
9. The Frontier Line in 1800 (p. 178).
10. The explorations of Lewis and Clark (p. 189); Zebulon Pike (p. 190).
11. Ohio becomes a State; cheap lands (p. 206).
12. The National (Cumberland) Road (p. 207).
13. Steamboat navigation in the Mississippi valley (p. 208).
14. Indiana (pp. 208-210).
15. Illinois (p. 210).
16. Life in the Middle West in the early days (p. 211).
17. Louisiana (State) (pp. 214, 215).

18. Mississippi (pp. 215-218).
19. Alabama (p. 218).
20. Missouri (pp. 218, 219).
21. The Frontier Line in 1820 (p. 219).
22. The extension of the National Road (p. 239).
23. The Erie Canal (pp. 240-242); the Pennsylvania canal (p. 242); the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad (pp. 243, 244).
24. Michigan (pp. 244-246).
25. Arkansas (pp. 246, 247).
26. The Frontier Line in 1840 (p. 248).
27. Texas and its early history (pp. 252-254); its annexation (p. 254).
28. The early settlement of Oregon (p. 255).
29. Cheaper lands (the Preëmption Law); immigration (pp. 262, 263).
30. Along the Upper Mississippi and around the Great Lakes.
 - (1) Iowa (pp. 263-265).
 - (2) Wisconsin (pp. 265, 266).
 - (3) Minnesota (pp. 266, 267).
31. Chicago (pp. 208, 209).
32. California.
 - (1) California before the conquest (pp. 269-270).
 - (2) The discovery of gold in California (p. 270).
 - (3) Routes to California (pp. 270-272).
 - (4) California becomes a State (p. 272).
33. Oregon becomes a State (p. 273).
34. The beginnings of Utah (p. 274).
35. Kansas (pp. 289, 290).
36. Western development after the war (the New West) (p. 375).
37. Free lands (the Homestead Act) (p. 375).
38. Land grants to railroads (p. 376).
39. The encouragement of immigration (p. 376).
40. Along the Union Pacific.
 - (1) Nebraska (pp. 377, 378).
 - (2) Colorado (p. 378).
 - (3) Wyoming (p. 379).
 - (4) Utah (p. 380).
41. Along the Upper Missouri River and the Northern Pacific Railroad.
 - (1) The discovery of gold at the head waters of the Missouri (p. 380).
 - (2) Steamboat traffic on the Upper Missouri (p. 381).
 - (3) The building of the Northern Pacific (pp. 381, 382).
 - (4) The Dakotas, Montana, Idaho, Washington (pp. 382-384).

42. The New Southwest.

- (1) The building of the Atchison, Topeka and Santa Fé (pp. 384-386).
- (2) Northern and western Texas (p. 384).
- (3) Oklahoma (p. 385).
- (4) Arizona (p. 385).
- (5) New Mexico (p. 385).

XII. COMMERCE AND INDUSTRY.

1. The fur trade (pp. 30, 40, 55, 83, 190) ; fishing (p. 83).
2. The navigation laws (p. 76).
3. The growth of agriculture.
 - (1) Agriculture in the colonies in 1700 (p. 83).
 - (2) Agriculture in 1800 (pp. 179-181).
 - (3) Agriculture between 1800 and 1860 (p. 298).
 - (4) Progress in Agriculture between 1860 and the present time (pp. 410, 411).
4. The growth of American manufactures.
 - (1) Manufactures in the colonies in 1700 (p. 83).
 - (2) American manufactures in 1800 (p. 181).
 - (3) Growth of manufactures after the War of 1812 (p. 204).
 - (4) Progress in manufacturing between 1800 and 1860 (p. 299).
 - (5) Progress in manufacturing between 1860 and the present time (pp. 410, 411, 412).
5. The growth of American commerce.
 - (1) Commerce in 1800; the post-office (pp. 181-183).
 - (2) Injuries to American commerce (pp. 191-193).
 - (3) The Embargo; the Non-Intercourse Act (pp. 193, 196).
 - (4) Progress in commerce between 1800 and 1860 (pp. 299, 300).
 - (5) The Interstate Commerce Act (p. 391).
 - (6) The Sherman Anti-Trust Act (p. 391).
 - (7) The Rate Law of 1906 (p. 406).
 - (8) Progress in commerce between 1860 and the present time (pp. 410, 412-415).
6. Progress in mining (p. 412).
7. The New South (pp. 416, 417).

XIII. EXPANSION.

1. The Northwest Territory (p. 142).
2. The Louisiana Purchase (p. 189).
3. The Florida Purchase (pp. 222-223).
4. The annexation of Texas (p. 254).
5. The acquisition of Oregon (pp. 255, 256).

6. The Mexican cession (p. 259).
7. The Gadsden Purchase (p. 260, note).
8. The purchase of Alaska (p. 368).
9. The annexation of Hawaii (p. 402).
10. The acquisition of the Philippine Islands and of Porto Rico (p. 402).

XIV. FINANCIAL MATTERS.

1. The tariff.
 - (1) The first tariff (p. 161).
 - (2) The tariff of 1816; protection (pp. 204, 205).
 - (3) The "tariff of abominations" (p. 228).
 - (4) The tariff of 1832 (p. 234).
 - (5) The Walker Tariff (p. 359, note).
 - (6) The Morrill or War Tariff (p. 359).
 - (7) The McKinley Tariff (p. 391).
 - (8) The Wilson Tariff (p. 394).
 - (9) The Dingley Tariff (p. 398).
 - (10) The Payne Tariff (p. 407).
2. The assumption plans of Hamilton (p. 161).
3. The first Bank of the United States (p. 162).
4. The second Bank of the United States (pp. 235, 236).
5. The panic of 1837 (p. 237).
6. The Independent Treasury (p. 238).
7. Tyler and the Bank of the United States (p. 252).
8. The cost of the Civil War (pp. 358, 359).
9. How Congress met the expenses of the Civil War (pp. 359, 360).
10. National banks (pp. 360, 361).
11. Greenbacks (pp. 371, 372).
12. The Silver Purchase Act (p. 391).
13. The repeal of the purchasing clause of the Silver Purchase Act (p. 393).
14. The Income Tax (p. 394).
15. The free-silver campaign (p. 397).

XV. NULLIFICATION AND SECESSION.

1. The Alien and Sedition Laws; the Virginia and Kentucky Resolutions (p. 166).
2. The Hartford Convention (p. 202).
3. The nullification movement of 1832.
 - (1) South Carolina opposes the "tariff of abominations" (p. 229).
 - (2) The debate of Hayne and Webster (pp. 232-234).
 - (3) South Carolina begins a nullification movement (p. 234).

- (4) Jackson and nullification (pp. 234, 235).
4. The Personal Liberty Laws (p. 289).
5. Secession of seven Southern States (first secession) (p. 317).
6. The second secession (p. 323).
7. The readmission of the seceding States (p. 366).

XVI. RECONSTRUCTION.

1. Measures of amnesty and pardon (p. 365).
2. The Thirteenth Amendment (p. 365).
3. The Freedmen's Bureau and the Civil Rights Bill (p. 366).
4. The Fourteenth Amendment (p. 366).
5. The Fifteenth Amendment (p. 366).
6. The conditions under which the seceding States were readmitted into the Union (p. 367).
7. Carpet-baggers; the Ku-Klux Klan (pp. 369, 370).
8. The removal of the troops from the South (p. 371).

XVII. INVENTIONS.

1. Useful inventions (pp. 184, 312).
2. The cotton-gin (p. 180).
3. The reaper (p. 298).
4. The telegraph (p. 301).
5. The sewing-machine (p. 302).
6. Patents (pp. 302, 303).
7. The telephone (p. 413).
8. The wireless telegraph (p. 413).
9. The wireless telephone (p. 415, note).
10. The flying-machine (p. 415, note).

XVIII. EDUCATION AND LITERATURE.

1. Education in the colonies in 1700 (p. 84).
2. Education in 1800 (p. 183).
3. The education of the masses.
 - (1) In New England; Horace Mann (p. 304).
 - (2) In the Middle and Southern States (p. 305).
 - (3) In the West (p. 305).
4. Higher education (pp. 306, 307).
5. The growth of American literature (pp. 307-310).

XIX. THE PRESIDENTS: THEIR ELECTION AND INAUGURATION.

1. George Washington, 1789-1797 (pp. 159, 160, 164).
2. John Adams, 1797-1801 (p. 165).

3. Thomas Jefferson, 1801-1809 (pp. 180, 181, 194).
4. James Madison, 1809-1817 (p. 196).
5. James Monroe, 1817-1825 (p. 221).
6. John Quincy Adams, 1825-1829 (p. 227).
7. Andrew Jackson, 1829-1837 (pp. 230, 231, 236).
8. Martin Van Buren, 1837-1841 (p. 237).
9. William H. Harrison, March 4, 1841, to April 4, 1841 (pp. 250, 251).
10. John Tyler,¹ April 4, 1841, to March 4, 1845 (pp. 250, 251).
11. James K. Polk, 1845-1849 (p. 254).
12. Zachary Taylor, March 4, 1849, to July 9, 1850 (pp. 276, 277).
13. Millard Fillmore,¹ July 9, 1850, to March 4, 1853 (pp. 276, 277).
14. Franklin Pierce, 1853-1857 (p. 287).
15. James Buchanan, 1857-1861 (pp. 291, 292).
16. Abraham Lincoln, 1861-April 15, 1865 (pp. 296, 363).
17. Andrew Johnson,¹ April 15, 1865, to March 4, 1869 (p. 364).
18. Ulysses S. Grant, 1869-1877 (p. 369).
19. Rutherford B. Hayes, 1877-1881 (p. 371).
20. James A. Garfield, March 4, 1881, to September 19, 1881 (p. 388).
21. Chester A. Arthur,¹ September 19, 1881, to March 4, 1885 (p. 389).
22. Grover Cleveland, 1885-1889 (p. 390).
23. Benjamin Harrison, 1889-1893 (p. 391).
22. Grover Cleveland, 1893-1897 (p. 393).
24. William McKinley, March 4, 1897, to September 14, 1901 (pp. 397, 402).
25. Theodore Roosevelt,² September 14, 1901, to March 4, 1909 (pp. 403, 406).
26. William H. Taft, 1909- (p. 407).

XX. MISCELLANEOUS TOPICS.

1. The treason of Benedict Arnold (p. 145).
2. Shays's Rebellion (p. 153).
3. The Whisky Insurrection (p. 162).
4. The treason of Aaron Burr (p. 194).
5. The "era of good feeling" (p. 221).
6. The Monroe Doctrine (p. 225).
7. Dorr's Rebellion (p. 251, note).
8. The impeachment of Andrew Johnson (p. 367).
9. The Chicago fire (p. 370).
10. The Centennial Exposition (p. 370).
11. The Electoral Commission (p. 371).

¹ Raised to the Presidency from the Vice-Presidency.

² Raised to the Presidency from the Vice-Presidency upon the death of McKinley; elected President in 1904.

12. The World's Columbian Exposition (p. 394).
13. The Chicago riots (p. 395).
14. The Venezuelan boundary dispute (p. 395).
15. The anthracite coal strike (p. 403).
16. The St. Louis Exposition (p. 404).
17. The San Francisco earthquake (p. 407).
18. The discovery of the North Pole (p. 408).

INDEX

(The numbers refer to pages, and reference is made to the notes as well as to the text)

A

Abolition of slavery, 280, 281, 316, 365
 Abominations, Tariff of, 228
 Acadia, 110
 Acts, *see* names of acts and laws, as Embargo Act, etc.
 Adams, John:
 helps to carry through the treaty of 1783, 147
 sketch of life, 165
 President, 165, 166
 Adams, John Quincy:
 sketch of life, 227
 President, 227, 228
 his character, 228
 his contest with Jackson, 230
 his views in respect to Cuba, 398
 Adams, Samuel, 117, 123, 125
 Adolphus, Gustavus, 62
 Agriculture:
 in the colonies, 83
 condition of, in 1800, 179-181
 progress in, between 1800 and 1860, 298
 progress in, since 1860, 410, 411
 Aguinaldo (ä-gē-näl'dō), 402
 Aix-la-Chapelle (äks-lä-shä-pel'), treaty of, 101
 Alabama:
 explored by De Soto, 13
 a part of Mississippi Territory, 216
 admitted to the Union, 218
 cotton-growing in, 246
 secedes from the Union, 317
 carpet-bag rule in, 369
 Alabama, the, 346
 Alaska, 225, 368
 Alaska-Yukon Exposition, 384
 Albany, 40, 108, 131, 137, 241
 Albany Congress, 107
 Albemarle, 70
 Alexandria (Virginia), 109
 Alien and Sedition Laws, 166
 Allen, Ethan, 125
 America:
 discovery of, 6
 origin of name, 9
 American literature, 307-310

Americus Vesputius, 9
 Amherst, General, 112
 Amnesty and pardon (after Civil War), 365
 Anderson, Robert, 319, 322
 André (än'drā), Major, 145
 Andros (an'dros), Edmund, 78
 Animals of North America, 25
 Annapolis, 119
 Anthracite coal strike, 403
 Antietam, battle, 342
 Anti-Trust Law, 392
 Appomattox Court-House, 357
 Arizona, 384, 385
 Arkansas (är'kan-sä):
 carved out of the Louisiana Purchase, 189
 its early history, 246, 247
 admitted to the Union, 247
 secedes from the Union, 323
 Army of the Potomac, 328
 Arnold, Benedict, 125, 127, 137, 145
 Arthur, Chester A., 388, 389
 Articles of Confederation, 151-154
 Ashburton treaty, 252
 Assassination:
 of Lincoln, 363
 of Garfield, 388
 of McKinley, 403
 Assistance, writs of, 115
 Astor, John Jacob, 190
 Astoria, 190
 Atchison (Kansas), 290
 Atchison, Topeka and Santa Fé Railroad, 384
 Atlanta, 354, 417
 Austin, Moses, 253
 Austin, Stephen, 253

B

Bacon's Rebellion, 76
 Bad Axe, 266
 Balboa (bäl-bō'ä), 10
 Baltimore, Lord, 35
 Baltimore:
 its rank in 1800, 179
 attacked by the British, 201

KEY TO PRONUNCIATION¹

a as in fat.	ē as in mete.	ō as in note.	û as in mute.
ā " " fate.	ē " " her.	ō " " move.	ü German ü, French u.
ä " " far.	i " " pin.	ô " " nor.	oi as in oil.
ā " " fare.	i " " pine.	u " " tub.	ñ French nasal n.
e " " met.	o " " not.		

A double dot under any vowel indicates the short u-sound, as in but.

¹In accordance with the Century Dictionary.

- Baltimore—Continued:**
 desires the Western trade, 241
 begins a great railroad, 243
 its rank in 1860, 300
 Northern troops attacked in, 326
Baltimore and Ohio Railroad, 243
Banks, national, 360
Banks of the United States:
 first, 162
 second, 235
 efforts to reestablish, 252
Baptists, 85
Baton Rouge, 338
Battles, see names of battles, as Antietam, Bunker Hill, etc.
Battles (on land):
 Antietam, 342
 Atlanta, 354
 Baltimore, 201
 Bennington, 136
 Bladensburg, 201
 Braddock's defeat, 109
 Brandywine, 135
 Breed's Hill, 126
 Buena Vista (bwā'nā vēs'tā), 258
 Bull Run, 327, 342
 Bunker Hill, 126
 Camden, 144
 Cedar Creek, 356
 Cerro Gordo (ser'rō gōr'dō), 258
 Chancellorsville, 344
 Chapultepec (chā-pōl-te-pek'), 258
 Charleston, 143
 Chattanooga, 351
 Cherry Valley, 142
 Chickamauga, 351
 Chippewa, 201
 Cold Harbor, 355
 Concord, 124
 Corinth, 337
 Cowpens, 146
 Crown Point, 125
 Dallas, 354
 Dalton, 354
 El Caney (el kā-nā'), 400
 Fair Oaks, 340
 Fort Donelson, 333
 Fort Duquesne (dū-kān'), 107, 111
 Fort Henry, 333
 Fort Lee, 133
 Fort McHenry, 201
 Fort Washington, 133
 Fredericksburg, 342
 Germantown, 135
 Gettysburg, 349
 Harlem Heights, 132
 Island Number 10, 337
 Kenesaw Mountain, 354
 King's Mountain, 146
 Lexington, 123
 Long Island, 131
 Lookout Mountain, 353
 Lost Mountain, 354
 Lundy's Lane, 201
 Manassas, 327, 342
 Manila, 400
 Mechanicsville, 341
 Mexico City, 259
 Missionary Ridge, 353
 Molino del Rey (mō-lē'nō del rā'), 258
 Monmouth, 141
 Monterey, 258
 Murfreesboro, 338
 Nashville, 354
 New Orleans, 203
 Oriskany, 137
 Peninsular Campaign, 339-342
 Perryville, 338
 Petersburg, 356, 357
 Philippi, 327
 Pittsburg Landing, 336
 Port Hudson, 351
 Princeton, 134
 Resaca (rā-sā'kā), 354
 Richmond, 341, 357
 San Juan (sān hō-ān') Hill, 400
 Santiago (sān-tē-ā'gō), 401
 Saratoga, 137
 Savannah, 143, 355
 Seven Days, 341
 Shiloh, 336
 Spottsylvania, 355
 Stillwater, 137
 Stony Point, 141
 Ticonderoga, 125, 136
 Tippecanoe, 209
 Trenton, 134
 Vera Cruz (ve'rā krōz'), 258
 Vicksburg, 350, 351
 Washington City, 201
 White Plains, 132
 Wilderness, 355
 Williamsburg, 340
 Winchester, 356
 Wyoming, 142
 Yorktown, 146
Battles (on water):
Bon Homme Richard (bo-nom' rē-shār')
 and *Serapis* (se-rā'pis), 143
Chesapeake and *Leopard*, 193
Constitution and *Guerrière*, 199
Kearsarge and *Alabama*, 346
 Manila, 400
Merrimac and *Monitor*, 338
 New Orleans (Civil War), 337
 Perry's victory on the Lakes, 200
President and *Little Belt*, 197
 Santiago, 401
 Tripoli, 191, 192
 Bean, William, 171
 Bear State Republic, 259
 Beauregard (bō're-gārd), General, 327, 336
 Bell, John, 296
 Bennington, battle, 136
 Benton, Fort, 381
 Benton, Thomas, 173, 236
 Berkeley, William, 69, 75, 77, 84
 "Bible Commonwealth," 58
 Bienville (byān-vēl'), 100
 Birds of North America, 25
 Bismarck, 381
 Blackbeard, 73
 Black Hawk Purchase, 264
 Black Hawk War, 265
 Bladensburg, battle, 201
 Blaine, James G., 390
 Bland-Allison Act, 393
 Blockade in the Civil War, 329, 330, 333, 345
 Bonaparte, Napoleon, 165
 Books, 307
 Boone, Daniel, 169, 170, 173
 Boonesborough, 170
 Booth, John Wilkes, 363
 Boston:
 the beginnings of, 50
 Latin school opened in, 52
 opposes Stamp Act, 115
 massacre in, 117

Boston—Continued:

- resists tax on tea, 119
- its harbor closed, 119
- evacuated by the British, 128
- its opposition to Fugitive-Slave Law, 289
- its population in 1800, 179; its rank in 1860, 300
- great fire in, 370
- Boulder (Colorado), 378
- Bowling Green (Kentucky), 333
- Braddock, General, 108, 109
- Bradford, William, 48
- Bragg, General, 338, 351
- Brandywine, battle, 135
- Branford (Connecticut), 58
- Brazil, 9, 15
- Breckenridge, John C., 296
- Breed's Hill, 126
- Brewster, William, 47
- Brock, General, 199
- Brooklyn Heights, 131
- Brooks, Preston, 290
- Brown, General, 201
- Brown, John, 290, 295
- Brush, Charles F., 415
- Bryan, William Jennings, 397, 402, 407
- Bryant, William Cullen, 308, 310
- Buchanan, James, 292, 319
- Buell, General, 336, 338
- Buena Vista (bwā'nā vēs'tā), 258
- Buffalo (New York), 241, 242, 403
- Buffaloes, 26, 272
- Bull Run, 327, 342
- Bunker Hill, 126
- Burgesses, House of, 34
- Burgoyne (bér-goin'), General, 136-138
- Burlington (Iowa), 264
- Burnside, General, 342
- Burr, Aaron, 186, 194
- Butler, B. F., 390
- Butler, Senator, 291

C

- Cabinet, the first, 160
- Cable, Atlantic, 413
- Cabot, John, 16, 41, 101
- Cabral (kā-brāl'), 15
- Calhoun, John C.:
 - of Scotch-Irish descent, 173
 - candidate for President, 227
 - opposes the Compromise of 1850, 283
 - sketch of his life, 284
 - his character and death, 285
- California:
 - visited by Drake, 20
 - Russians build a fort in, 226
 - Polk desires to possess, 256
 - ceded to the United States, 259
 - mission life in, 269
 - discovery of gold in, 270
 - routes to, 270-272
 - becomes a State, 272
 - debate about the admission of, 282-284
- Calvert, Cecil, 36
- Calvert, George, 35
- Calvert, Leonard, 35
- Cambridge (Massachusetts), 55
- Canada, 17, 94, 199, 281
- Canals:
 - the Erie, 240-242
 - the Pennsylvania, 242
 - the Sault Ste. Marie, 267
 - the Panama, 401-406
- Capital, the national, 139, 159, 162, 186

- Carleton, General, 131, 136
- Carlisle (Pennsylvania), 349
- Carolinas, the, 69-73
- Carpet-baggers, 369
- Carroll, Charles, 243
- Carteret, George, 44
- Cartier (kär-tyä'), Jacques, 17
- Carver, John, 48
- Cass, Lewis, 245, 276
- Catholics, 36, 85, 269
- Censure of Jackson, 236
- Census, 179
- Centennial Exposition, 370
- Center of population, 301
- Cerro Gordo (ser'rō gōr'dō), battle, 258
- Cervera (thār-vā'rā), Admiral, 400, 401
- Chadds Ford, battle, 135
- Chambersburg (Pennsylvania), 349, 356
- Champlain, Samuel, 39, 94
- Champoeg (sham-pō'eg) (Oregon), 255
- Chancellorsville, battle, 343-345
- Chapultepec (chā-pōl-te-pek'), battle, 257
- Charles I., 51, 75
- Charles II., 43, 64, 76, 78
- Charleston:
 - founding of, 71, 72
 - resists the tax on tea, 119
 - surrenders to the British, 143
 - in 1800, 179
 - opposes the Tariff of Abominations, 22
 - during the Civil War, 319, 321
- Charlestown (Massachusetts), 50, 123, 126
- Charlotte (North Carolina), 358
- Charter Oak, 78
- Chattanooga, battle, 351
- Cherokees, 247
- Cherry Valley, battle, 142
- Chesapeake, the, 193
- Chester (Pennsylvania), 65
- Cheyenne (shī-en') (Wyoming), 379
- Chicago:
 - Fort Dearborn the original site of, 211
 - its early history, 268
 - its rapid growth, 269
 - great fire in, 370
 - World's Fair held in, 394
 - riots in, 395
- Chicago and Rock Island Railroad, 267
- Chickamauga, battle, 351
- Chickasaw Indians, 247
- Chillicothe (chil-i-koth'e) (Ohio), 176, 206
- Chippewa, battle, 201
- Choctaw Indians, 247
- Church of England, 46, 50, 51, 84, 85
- Cibola (sē'bō-lā), seven cities of, 14
- Cincinnati, 175, 178, 301
- Cities:
 - in 1800, 179
 - in 1860, 300
 - in 1910, 418
- Civil Rights Bill, 366, 367
- Civil Service Commission, 389
- Civil War:
 - beginnings of, 314-323
 - the principal events of, 325-357
 - the results and cost of, 358-361
 - (for a full analysis of the war see *Review of Great Subjects*, under heading *Wars other than Indian*)
- Claiborne, William, of Virginia, 36
- Claiborne, William, of Louisiana, 214
- Clark, George Rogers, 142, 173
- Clark, William, 189, 255
- Clay, Henry:
 - sketch of life, 228

Clay, Henry—Continued:

candidate for President, 227, 235, 236, 276

his compromise tariff, 235

his compromise of 1850, 283

his character and death, 285

Clayton-Bulwer treaty, 404

Clermont, the, 208

Cleveland (Ohio), 176, 178

Cleveland, Grover:

sketch of his life, 390

first administration, 390, 391

second administration, 393-395

Clinton, De Witt, 241

Clinton, Sir Henry, 141, 143

Coal, 299

Coal strike, 403

Cockburn (kō'bérn), Admiral, 201

Coinage, gold and silver, 392, 393

Cold Harbor, battle, 355

Colleges and universities, 84, 183, 306, 416

Colonies:

location of the English colonies, 30

their condition in 1700, 80-86

growth between 1700 and 1740, 87-93

their quarrel with the mother country, 114-126

declare their independence, 128

secure their independence, 147

Colorado:

carved out of the Louisiana Purchase (in part), 189

its early settlement, 378

becomes a State, 378

irrigation in, 379

Columbia, District of, 283

Columbia (Pennsylvania), 242

Columbia (South Carolina), 234

Columbia River, 190

Columbus, Christopher:

birth and youth of, 1

his notions about the earth, 4

plans for a westward voyage, 4, 6

his first great voyage, 5, 6

later voyages, 6

his achievements, 7

Columbus (Kentucky), 333, 337

Columbus (Ohio), 239

Commerce:

in 1800, 181

harassed by England and France, 191-193, 196

commercial independence, 204

trade routes between the seaboard and the West, 240-244

between 1800 and 1860, 299

Interstate Commerce Act, 391

Anti-Trust Law, 392

Rate Law of 1906, 406

progress in, since 1860, 410, 412-415

"Common Sense," written by Thomas Paine, 129

Compromises:

Missouri, 223, 224, 288

tariff of 1832, 235

of 1850, 282-284

Crittenden, 317

Comstock mine, 375

Concord, battle, 124

Confederate States of America, 317

Confederation, Articles of, 151-154

Congregational Church, 85

Congresses:

Albany, 107

Congresses—Continued:

Stamp Act, 116

First Continental, 122

Second Continental, 125, 151-154

under the Constitution, 156

Connecticut:

settlement of, 55-58

joins New England Confederation, 60

refuses to surrender charter, 78

population in 1700, 82

sends delegates to Stamp Act Congress, 116

did not form a new constitution, 150

secures a slice of the Northwest Territory, 154

opposed to the War of 1812, 198

Constitution, the, its battle with the *Guerrière*, 199

Constitution, the first written, 57

Constitution of the United States:

its formation, 154-157

ratified by the States, 156

how it differs from the Articles of Confederation, 156, 157

amended, 365, 366

Constitutional Union party, 296

Constitutions, State, 150

Cook, F. A., 408

Cooper, James Fenimore, 308

Cooper, Peter, 244

Corinth, 336, 337

Corn, 28, 179, 211, 299, 411

Cornwallis, General, 134, 143, 146

Coronado (kō-rō-nā'dō), 14

Corporations, 392

Cortés (kōr-tās'), Hernando, 12

Corydon (kor'i-don) (Indiana), 209

Cotton, 180, 246, 299, 411, 417

Cotton-gin, 180

Cowpens, battle, 146

Crawford, William, 227

Creeks, 216, 247

Crittenden Compromise, 317

Cromwell, Oliver, 75

Crown Point, 112, 125

Crystal Palace, 287

Cuba, 6, 398

Cumberland (Maryland), 109, 207

Cumberland Gap, 170, 333

Custer, General George, 382

D

Da Gama (dā gā'mā), Vasco, 4

Dakotas, 382, 383

Dale, Thomas, 34

Dallas, battle, 354

Dallas (Texas), 385

Dalton (dāl'ton), battle, 353, 354

Dare, Virginia, 21

Davenport, John, 58

Davenport (Iowa), 264

Davis, Jefferson:

President of the Confederate States, 318

his life and character, 319

demands the surrender of Sumter, 321

removes with his cabinet to Charlotte.

N. C., 358

is captured, 358

not brought to trial, 365

Dayton (Ohio), 176, 251

Dearborn, Fort, 210

Debs, Eugene V., 406, 407

Debt, national, 161, 360

Decatur, Stephen, 192
 Declaration of Independence, 128-130
 Deerfield (Massachusetts), 99
 De Grasse (dē grās'), Count, 146
 De Kalb (de kälb), General, 144
 Delaware:
 named after Lord Delawarr, 33
 claimed by the Swedes and the Dutch, 62
 transferred to the Duke of York, 63
 sold to William Penn, 63
 refuses to send delegates to the Pennsylvania Assembly, 66
 sends delegates to Stamp Act Congress, 116
 remains in the Union, 323
 not affected by the Emancipation Proclamation, 342
 Delawarr, 34
 De Leon (dā lā-ōn'), 12
 Democratic party, 163, 186, 296
 Denver, 378
 Des Moines (de moin'), 265
 De Soto (dā sō'tō), 13
 Detroit, 142, 164, 199, 201, 245
 Dewey, Admiral George B., 399, 401
 Diaz (dē'ās), Bartholomeu, 3
 Dictionary, Noah Webster's, 310
 Dingley Tariff, 398
 Dinwiddie, Governor of Virginia, 105, 106
 District of Columbia, 283
 Donelson, Fort, 333
 Dorchester Heights, 128
 Dorr's Rebellion, 251
 Douglas, Stephen A., 288, 293, 295, 296
 Dover (New Hampshire), 53, 98
 Dow, Neal, 388
 Drake, Sir Francis, 19, 21
 Dred Scott decision, 292, 293
 Drummond, William, 70
 Dubuque (dō-būk'), 264
 Duluth (dū-lōth'), 267, 381
 Duquesne (dū-kān'), Fort, 107, 111
 Dutch:
 in Connecticut valley, 41, 55
 in New York, 38-44
 claim Delaware, 62
 lose their possessions in Delaware, 62
 see also Holland

E

Early, General, 356
 Earth, notions about its size and shape, 2, 4
 Earthquake at San Francisco, 407
 Eaton, Theophilus, 58
 Edict of Nantes, 71
 Edison, Thomas A., 415
 Education:
 in New England in colonial times, 52
 in the colonies generally, 84
 encouraged by the Ordinance of 1787, 174
 in 1800, 183
 progress in, between 1800 and 1860, 304-307
 progress in, since 1860, 410, 416
 El Caney (el kā-nā'), 400
 Electoral Commission, 372
 Electricity, 108, 184, 415
 Elizabeth, Queen, 21
 Elizabethtown (New Jersey), 44
 Elkton (Maryland), 135
 Ellsworth, Oliver, 155

Elmira (New York), 142
 Emancipation Proclamation, 342, 343
 Embargo Act, 193, 204, 299
 Emerson, Ralph Waldo, 308
 Endicott, John, 49
 England:
 claims part of the New World, 15-17
 strengthens her navy, 19
 defeats the Spanish Armada, 20
 first attempts to plant colonies in the New World, 20-22
 in possession of the Atlantic coast, 30, 43
 a rival of France, 96, 101
 struggles for the possession of Fort Duquesne, 107, 109
 declares war upon France, 109
 drives France from America, 113
 quarrels with her colonies, 114-120
 revolt of the colonies, 125-147
 loses the colonies, 147
 unfriendly conduct of, 196, 197
 wages war with the United States, 197-203
 supports the Monroe Doctrine, 226
 her claims to Oregon, 255, 256
 her conduct during the Civil War, 330
 her course in respect to Venezuela, 395
 Episcopal Church, 46, 50, 51, 84, 85
 "Era of Good Feeling," 221
 Ericson, Leif, 16
 Erie Canal, 240-242, 245
 Erie (Pennsylvania), 102
 Erskine, the British minister, 196
 Expansion, table showing, 260
 Expenses:
 of the Revolutionary War, 149
 of the Civil War, 359
 Exposition:
 Alaska-Yukon, 384
 Atlanta, 417
 Centennial, 371
 Crystal Palace, 287
 Jamestown, 417
 Lewis and Clark Expedition, 404
 New Orleans, 417
 Pan-American, 403
 St. Louis, 404
 World's Columbian, 394
 Express companies, 312
 Extension of the United States, 260 (table)

F

Fair Oaks, battle, 340
 Fallen Timbers, battle, 176
 Farragut (far'a-gut), Admiral, 337, 338
 Federalist party, 163, 166, 203
 Field, Cyrus W., 413
 Fifteenth Amendment, 366
 Filipinos (fil-i-pē'nōz), 402
 Fillmore, Millard, 276, 277, 278
 Fires, great:
 in Boston, 370
 in Chicago, 370
 Fishes of North America, 25
 Fishing, 83
 Fitch, John, 208
 Florida:
 discovered by De Leon, 12
 given to Spain by treaty of 1783, 147
 purchased from Spain, 222, 223
 admitted to the Union, 254
 secedes from the Union, 317

Flying-machines, 415
 Foote, Commodore, 334, 337
 Forbes, General, 111
 Forests, 23
 Forks of the Ohio, 105
 Forts, *see* names, as Fort Donelson, Fort Harmar, etc.
 Forts:
 Benton, 381
 Crown Point, 112, 125
 Dearborn, 210
 Detroit, 199
 Donelson, 333
 Duquesne (dü-kän'), 107, 111
 Erie, 102
 Harmar, 174
 Henry, 333
 Jackson, 337
 Leavenworth, 259
 Lee, 133
 Louisburg, 101, 112
 Malden, 199
 McHenry, 201
 Mimms, 217
 Monroe, 358
 Niagara, 111
 Pillow, 337
 St. Philip, 337
 Smith, 248
 Stony Point, 141
 Sumter, 319, 321, 322
 Ticonderoga, 125
 Washington, 133
 Wayne, 176
 Worth, 385
 Fourteenth Amendment, 366
 France:
 claims part of the New World, 17
 gains possession of the St. Lawrence region and of the Mississippi valley, 30, 94-96
 makes enemies of the Iroquois, 39
 a rival of England, 96
 claims the Ohio valley, 101
 driven from America, 113
 makes a treaty of alliance with the United States, 139
 desires the support of the United States, 163
 her unfriendly conduct toward the United States, 165
 sells Louisiana to the United States, 187
 continues to harass American commerce, 197
 in Mexico, 367
 Franklin, Benjamin:
 his life up to 1754, 108
 in the Second Continental Congress, 125
 helps to carry through the treaty of 1783, 147
 a member of the Constitutional Convention, 155
 Franklin (Pennsylvania), 102
 Franklin, the State of, 173
 Fredericksburg, battle, 342
 Freedmen's Bureau, 365, 367
 Free-Soil party, 276
 Frémont, John C., 259, 292
 French, the, *see* France
 French and Indian War, 109-113
 Friends, Society of, 63
 Frontenac (frönt-näk'), governor of Canada, 98

Frontier Line:
 what is meant by, 80
 in 1700, 81
 in 1740, 92, 93
 in 1800, 178
 in 1820, 219
 in 1840, 248
 Fugitive-Slave Law of 1850, 284, 287, 289
 Fugitive-slave laws, 281, 282
 Fulton, Robert, 208
 Fur trade, 30, 39, 55, 62, 83, 94, 190

G

Gadsden Purchase, 260
 Gage, General, 122, 123
 Gallipolis (gal-i-pō-lēs') (Ohio), 175
 Galveston, 385
 Gama (gä'mä), Vasco da, 4
 Garfield, James A., 388
 Garrison, William Lloyd, 280, 281, 365
 Gas, 184, 312
 Gates, General, 137, 140, 143, 144
 Genêt (zhe-nä'), French minister, 163
 Geneva Award, 346
 Genoa, 1
 George II, 89
 George III, 117, 118, 129
 Georgia:
 settlement of, 89
 becomes a royal colony, 90
 during the Revolution, 143
 secedes from the Union, 317
 during the Civil War, 354, 355
 Germans, 87, 91, 262
 Germantown, battle, 135
 Gerry, Elbridge, 155
 Gettysburg, battle, 349-350
 Ghent, treaty of, 203
 Gilbert, Sir Humphrey, 20
 Gold, discovery of:
 in California, 270
 in Colorado, 378
 in Montana, 380
 Gorges (gôr'jez), Ferdinando, 54
 Gorton, Samuel, 60
 Government:
 in the colonies, 34, 36, 49, 51, 52, 58, 66, 85
 of the United States, 151-157, 159-161
 of a Territory, 174
 the people the masters of, 231
 of the Confederate States, 317
Grand Model, the, 70
 Grant, General U. S.:
 his life up to 1860, 334-335
 captures Fort Donelson, 334
 at Shiloh, 336
 at Vicksburg, 351
 at Chattanooga, 353
 in command of all the armies of the United States, 353
 agrees with Sherman upon a plan of campaign, 354
 sets out to capture Richmond, 355
 in the Wilderness and at Spottsylvania, 355
 at Cold Harbor, 355
 lays siege to Petersburg, 356
 captures Petersburg and Richmond, 357
 receives the surrender of Lee's army, 357
 elected to the Presidency, 369
 what he thought of the "spoils system," 389

Gray, Robert, 254
Great Lakes, 199, 241, 244, 383
Great Law, Penn's, 66
Greeley, Horace, 369
Greenback party, 371
Greenbacks, 359, 360
Green Bay (Wisconsin), 248, 266
Greene, Nathanael, 127, 133, 146
Green Mountain Boys, 125
Guadalupe (gwā-dā-lō'pā) Hidalgo (ē-dāl'-gō), 259
Guerrière (gār-ryār') and *Constitution*, 199
Guilford (Connecticut), 58
Guthrie (Oklahoma), 385

H

Hackensack (New Jersey), 132
Half-Moon, the, 38
Halleck, General, 337
Hamilton, Alexander:
 a member of the Constitutional Convention, 155
 his life and public services, 161
 establishes the Bank of the United States, 162
 leader of the Federalist party, 163
 killed by Burr in a duel, 194
Hampton Roads, 338
Hancock, John, 123, 125
Hancock, W. S., 388
Hardships of the New World, 29
Harmar, Fort, 174
Harper's Ferry, 295
Harrisburg (Pennsylvania), 349
Harrison, Benjamin, 391-393
Harrison, William H., 208, 209, 250, 251
Harrod, James, 170
Harrodsburg (Kentucky), 170
Hartford, 42, 56, 77, 78, 84
Hartford Convention, 202
Harvard College, 52, 84
Havana, 399
Hawaiian Islands, 402
Hawthorne, Nathaniel, 308, 309
Hay-Pauncefote (pāns'fūt) treaty, 405
Hayes, Rutherford B., 371-373
Hayne, Senator, 232
Helena (hel'e-nā) (Montana), 381
Henry, Fort, battle, 333
Henry, Patrick, 116, 125
Herkimer, General, 137
Hessians, 129, 133
Hoboken (hō'bō-ken) (New Jersey), 44
Hobson, Lieutenant, 400
Hoe printing-press, 312
Holland:
 begins settlements around New York Bay, 40
 the Pilgrims in, 46
 see also Dutch
Hollidaysburg (Pennsylvania), 242
Holmes, Oliver Wendell, 308, 310
Homestead Act, 375
Hood, General J. B., 354
Hooker, General Joseph, 342, 344, 353
Hooker, Thomas, 55
Houston, Samuel, 173, 253
Houston (Texas), 385
Howe, Elias, 302
Howe, General, 126, 128, 131, 133, 137, 138
Hudson, Henry, 38-41, 62
Hudson River, 38, 40, 131
Huguenots, 17, 71

Hull, Isaac, 199
Hull, William, 199, 244, 245
Huntsville (Alabama), 218
Hutchinson, Anne, 59

I

Idaho:
 a part of the Oregon country, 256
 admitted as a State, 383
 its resources, 383
Illinois:
 a part of the Northwest Territory, 154
 its early history, 210
 becomes a State, 210
 life in the early days, 211
 its rapid growth, 248
Immigration, 87, 262, 410, 418
Impeachment of Johnson, 367
Impressment, 164, 193, 197, 204
Income Tax, 394
Independence, Declaration of, 128-130
Independence (Missouri), 271
Independent treasury, 237
Indiana:
 a part of the Northwest Territory, 154
 its early history, 208-210
 becomes a State, 210
 its rapid growth, 248
 its public-school system, 305
Indianapolis, 210, 239
Indians:
 how they received their name, 6
 trails made by, 24
 found in all parts of the New World, 26
 their government, religion, and occupations, 27
 their methods of warfare, 28
Iroquois tribe, 27, 39, 101, 109
in Virginia, 33, 76
in New England, 48, 56, 77
in New York, 27, 39, 101, 109
their treaty with Penn, 67
their relations with the French, 95
in the French and Indian War, 109
in the War of the Revolution, 142
to be justly treated, 174
in Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois, 176, 207, 210
Creeks, 217
Seminoles, 222
their removal from the South, 247
in the Oregon country, 255
in Iowa, Wisconsin, and Minnesota, 264-267
Sioux, 266, 382
in California, 269
reservations, 382
see also names of Indian chiefs and Indian wars
Indian Territory, 385
Initiative and referendum, 386
Interstate Commerce Act, 391
Interstate Commerce Commission, 391, 406
Intolerable Acts, 119, 122
Inventions, 301-303, 312, 413
Invincible Armada, 20
Iowa (ī'ō-wā):
 carved out of Louisiana Purchase, 189
 early history of, 263-265
 becomes a State, 265
 its farm products, 267
 a free State, 314
Irish, 262. See also Scotch-Irish

Iron manufacture, 299
Iroquois, 27, 39, 101, 109
Irrigation, 274, 379
Irving, Washington, 308
Irwinville (Georgia), 358
Island Number 10, 337

J

Jackson, Andrew:
 of Scotch-Irish descent, 173
 at New Orleans, 203
 defeats the Seminoles, 222
 defeats the Creeks, 217
 candidate for President, 227
 elected President, 230
 his character, 230-231
 a man of the people, 231
 introduces the "spoils system," 232
 opposes nullification, 234
 opposes the Bank of the United States,
 235
 defeats Clay for the Presidency, 236
 retires to private life, 237
Jackson, Stonewall:
 of Scotch-Irish descent, 173
 in the Shenandoah valley, 341
 at Chancellorsville, 344
 his death, 345
Jackson (Michigan), 291
James I, 31, 46
James II, 78, 79, 98
Jamestown, 31-35, 77
Jay, John:
 a member of the Second Continental
 Congress, 125
 helps to carry through treaty of 1783,
 147
 first Chief Justice of the United States,
 160
 negotiates treaty with England, 164
Jefferson, Thomas:
 writes Declaration of Independence, 129
 a member of Washington's first cabi-
 net, 160
 favors location of capital on the Poto-
 mac, 162
 the leader of the Democratic party, 163
 his political principles, 186
 his election and inauguration, 187
 purchases Louisiana, 187-189
 sends out Lewis and Clark expedition,
 189
 wages war with Tripoli, 191
 has trouble with England and France,
 192, 193
 brings Aaron Burr to trial, 194
 refuses a third term, 194
 supports Madison for the Presidency,
 196
 what he said about Monroe, 221
 what he said about the Missouri Com-
 promise, 224
 what he said about Andrew Jackson,
 230
 opposed to slavery, 280
 his opinion in respect to Cuba, 398
Jefferson City (Missouri), 219, 239
Jefferson Territory, 378
Jesuits, 95, 269
John Brown's Raid, 295
Johnson, Andrew:
 his life and character, 364
 his administration, 364-369
 impeachment of, 367

Johnson, Sir William, 111
Johnston, Albert Sidney, 336
Johnston, Joseph E., 340, 354, 357
Johnstown (Pennsylvania), 243
Jones, John Paul, 142

K

Kansas:
 explored by Coronado, 14
 carved out of the Louisiana Purchase,
 189
 organized as a Territory, 288
 the struggle over slavery, 288-290
 admitted as a State, 290
Kansas City, 248, 271, 384
Kansas-Nebraska Bill, 287-289
Kaposia (Minnesota), 267
Kaskaskia (Illinois), 142, 210
Kearney, Stephen, 259
Kearsarge, the, 346
Kenesaw Mountain, battle, 354
Kentucky:
 its early settlement, 169-171
 becomes a State, 171
 demands the open navigation of the
 Mississippi, 188
 its soldiers at the battle of New Or-
 leans, 203
 its growth, 248
 remains in the Union, 323
 not affected by the Emancipation
 Proclamation, 343
Kentucky Resolutions, 166, 203
Key, Francis Scott, 202
King, Rufus, 155
King George's War, 100
King Philip's War, 77
King William's War, 98
King's Mountain, battle, 146
Kirkland (Ohio), 274
Know-Nothing party, 292
Knox, Henry, 127, 160
Ku-Klux (kū'kluks) Klan, 370

L

Labor, the New World a place for, 28
Lafayette, General, 140, 146
Lancaster (Pennsylvania), 135
Lands, public, 154, 206, 262, 306, 375
La Salle (lä säl'), Robert, 95, 96
Lawrence (Kansas), 290
Lawrence, the, 200
Leavenworth, Fort, 259, 290
Lebœuf (lê-bœf'), 102
Lecompton (le-komp'ton) (Kansas), 290
Lee, General Charles, 133, 141
Lee, Jason, 255
Lee, General Robert E.:
 captures John Brown, 295
 his life up to 1862, 340-341
 appointed to succeed General Johnston,
 340
 in the Peninsular Campaign, 341
 at Manassas, Antietam, and Fredericks-
 burg, 342
 at Chancellorsville, 344
 invades Pennsylvania, 349
 returns to Virginia, 350
 fights with Grant at Spottsylvania and
 in the Wilderness, 355
 defeats Grant at Cold Harbor, 355
 defends Petersburg, 357
 surrenders to Grant at Appomattox, 357

- Legislature, first American, 34
Leopard, the, 193
 Lewis, Meriwether, 189, 255
 Lewis and Clark expedition, 189
 Lewis and Clark Exposition, 404
 Lexington, battle, 123
 Lexington (Kentucky), 170
 Leyden (li'den) (Holland), 46
Liberator, the, 280
 Lincoln, Abraham:
 his life in Indiana and Illinois, 212
 his life as told by himself, 293-294
 in the Lincoln-Douglas debates, 295
 elected President, 296
 the effect of his election, 314-316
 his inaugural address, 320
 not properly supported by the leaders, 321
 prepares for war, 321
 issues the Emancipation Proclamation, 342
 reelected to the Presidency, 363
 the assassination of, 363
 his mild policy, 364
 Lincoln (Nebraska), 377
 Line of Demarcation, 15
 Literature, American, 307-310
 Little Rock, 219
 Livingston, Robert, 125, 189
 Locke, John, 70
 Locomotive, the, 244
 Log-cabin campaign, 250
 Longfellow, Henry Wadsworth, 308, 310
 Long Island, battle, 131
 Los Angeles (lōs ān'he-lās), 269, 384
 Losses in war:
 of the Revolution, 149
 of the Civil War, 359
 Lost Mountain, battle, 354
 Louis XIV, 96, 98, 99
 Louisburg, 100, 111
 Louisiana (French):
 taken possession of by La Salle, 96
 settlements in, 100
 purchased by the United States, 187-189
 formal transfer of, to the United States, 215
 Louisiana (State):
 carved out of the Louisiana Purchase, 189
 early history of, 214-215
 admitted to the Union, 215
 secedes from the Union, 317
 Louisiana, District of, 215
 Louisiana Purchase, 187-189
 Louisiana Purchase Exposition, 404
 Louisville, 170, 178
 Lowell, Francis, 204
 Lowell, James Russell, 308, 310
 Lundy's Lane, battle, 201
 Lutherans, 85
 Lynn (Massachusetts), 50
 Lyon, Nathaniel, 326
- M**
- McClellan, General George B.:
 his operations in West Virginia, 327
 organizes the Army of the Potomac, 328
 his Peninsular Campaign, 339-342
 removed from command, reinstated, and removed again, 342
 candidate for President, 363
- McCormick reaper, 298
 McDowell, General, 327, 328, 341
 McHenry, Fort, battle, 261
 Mackinaw (Michigan), 245
 McKinley, William:
 his life, 397
 elected President, 397
 first administration, 397-402
 his reelection, 402
 assassination of, 403
 McKinley Tariff, 391
 Madison, James:
 a member of the Constitutional Convention, 155
 his life and character, 196
 his trouble with England, 197
 opposed to slavery, 280
 Magellan, his great voyage, 10-12
 Maine:
 joined to Massachusetts, 54, 79
 during the War of the Revolution, 127
 joins the Union, 223
Maine, the, 399
 Malden, Fort, battle, 199
 Manassas, battle, 327, 342
 Manchester (Ohio), 175
 Manhattan Island, 40
 Manila (mā-nē'lā), 400, 402
 Mann, Horace, 304, 305
 Manufacturing:
 in the colonies in 1700, 83
 in 1800, 181
 protection to America, 204
 growth of, between 1800 and 1860, 299
 progress in, since 1860, 410, 411
 in the South, 417
 Marietta (Ohio), 175
 Marion, Francis, 143
 Markham, William, 65
 Marquette (mār-ket'), James, 95
 Marshall, James W., 270
 Mary, Queen of England, 79
 Maryland:
 founding of, 35-37
 religion in, 36, 85
 government in, 36, 85
 dispute about the boundary line, 64
 Huguenots in, 72
 population in 1700, 82
 during the Revolution, 116, 119, 135, 144
 its demands in respect to the Northwest Territory, 154
 during the War of 1812, 201
 its public-school system, 305
 remains in the Union, 323
 during the Civil War, 326, 342
 not affected by the Emancipation Proclamation, 343
 Mason, John, 53
 Mason and Dixon's Line, 64
 Mason and Slidell affair, 330
 Massachusetts:
 settlement of, 49-52
 joins the New England Confederation, 60
 deprived of its charter, 78
 becomes a royal province, 79
 population in 1700, 82
 during the Revolution, 115, 116, 122, 123-125, 126-128
 Tories in, 132
 Shays's Rebellion in, 153
 opposed to War of 1812, 198

- Massachusetts—*Continued*:
 cotton manufactures in, 204
 in the Civil War, 326
 Massacres:
 Cherry Valley, 142
 Fort Dearborn, 210
 Fort Mimms, 217
 Custer, 382
 Massasoit (mas'a-soit), 48
 Maximilian, 368
 Mayflower, the, 47
 Meade, General, 349
 Mechanicsville, battle, 341
 Memphis, 337
 Mendota (Minnesota), 267
 Menlo Park (New Jersey), 415
 Merit system, 389
 Merrimac and the Monitor, 338-339
 Merritt, General, 400
 Methodist missions, 255
 Mexico:
 Cortés in, 12
 war with, 256-259
 Mexico, City of, battle, 259
 Michigan:
 explored by the French, 94, 96
 carved out of the Northwest Territory,
 154
 passes into the hands of the British, 199
 restored to the United States, 201
 its early history, 244, 245
 admitted as a State, 245
 the Republican party in, 291
 higher education in, 307
 Miles, General, 401
 Milford (Connecticut), 58
 Milwaukee, 266, 267
 Mimms, Fort, 217
 Mining, 412
 Minneapolis, 267
 Minnesota:
 carved out of the Northwest Territory
 (in part), 154
 and out of the Louisiana Purchase (in
 part), 189
 early history of, 266
 its wonderful growth, 267
 admitted to the Union, 267
 its resources, 268
 a free State, 314
 Minuit (min'ü-it), Peter, 40, 62
 "Minute-men," 123
 Miquelon (mëk-lôn'), 113
 Mission life in California, 269
 Missionary Ridge, 353
 Mississippi:
 early history of, 215-218
 admitted to the Union, 218
 a cotton-growing State, 246
 secedes from the Union, 317
 in the Civil War, 350, 351
 Mississippi River, 13, 96, 188, 333, 337,
 353
 Mississippi valley, 99
 Missouri (State):
 carved out of the Louisiana Purchase,
 189
 early history of, 218, 219
 debate over admission of, 223
 admission of, 210, 223
 remains in the Union, 323
 during the Civil War, 326
 not affected by the Emancipation Pro-
 clamation, 343
 Missouri Compromise, 223, 224, 288, 293
 Missouri River, 381
 Mobile, 218
 Mohawk valley, 87, 137
 Molino del Rey (mô-lë'nô del rã'), battle,
 258
 Monitor and the Merrimac, 338-339
 Monmouth, battle, 141
 Monroe, Fortress, 339, 358
 Monroe, James, 189, 221, 222, 226
 Monroe Doctrine, 225-227, 368, 395
 Montana:
 carved out of the Louisiana Purchase
 (in part), 189
 beginnings of, 380, 381, 382
 admitted as a State, 382
 its resources, 383
 Montcalm, General, 112
 Monterey (mon-te-rã') (California), 269
 Monterey (môn-tã-rã') (Mexico), battle,
 258
 Montgomery, Richard, 127
 Montgomery (Alabama), 317
 Morgan, Daniel, 127, 137
 Mormons, 274, 380
 Morrill Tariff Bill, 359
 Morristown, 134
 Morse, S. F. B., 301
 Murfreesboro, 338
- N
- Nantes (nants), Edict of, 71
 Napoleon III, 368
 Nashville, 178; battle, 354
 Natchez, 100, 218
 National banks, 360
 National Republican party, 235
 National Road, 207, 239
 Native American party, 292
 Nauvoo (Illinois), 274
 Naval warfare:
 in the Revolution, 142, 143
 in the War of 1812, 199-201
 in the Civil War, 338, 339, 345, 346
 Navigation laws, 76
 Nebraska:
 carved out of the Louisiana Purchase,
 189
 organized as a Territory, 288, 377
 admitted as a State, 377
 its growth, 378
 Nevada, 375
 New Amsterdam, 41, 43
 New England:
 early fishing-stations along coast of, 23
 name given by Smith, 48
 slavery in, 82
 education in, 84
 religion in, 85
 attacked by Canada, 99
 opposed to War of 1812, 198
 sends delegates to Hartford Conven-
 tion, 202
 manufacturing in, 204
 New England Confederation, 60
 New Hampshire, 52-54, 82
 New Haven, 57
 New Jersey:
 its settlement, 44, 45
 religion in, 85
 during the Revolution, 116, 132-134,
 141
 Tories in, 132
 New Mexico:
 explored by Coronado, 14

New Mexico—Continued:

- a part of the Mexican Cession, 259
- how it was affected by the Compromise of 1850, 283
- awaits admission to the Union, 385
- New Netherland, 41-43
- New Northwest, 380-384
- New Orleans:
 - founding of, 100
 - claimed by the United States as a place of deposit, 188
 - battle of, 203
 - its growth, 208, 215, 301
 - falls into the control of Union forces, 338
 - exposition in, 417
- Newport, Captain, 31
- Newport (Rhode Island), 60
- New South, 416
- New Southwest, 384-386
- Newspapers, 183, 312
- New Sweden, 62, 63
- Newton (New York), 142
- New West, 375-386
- New York (colony and State):
 - settlement of, by the Dutch, 38-44
 - is taken by the English, 43
 - Huguenots in, 72
 - Germans in, 87
 - population in 1700, 82
 - is ravaged by Frontenac's Indians, 98
 - in the French and Indian War, 111
 - during the War of the Revolution, 116, 131-133, 136-138, 142
 - Tories in, 132
 - opposed to the War of 1812, 198
 - builds the Erie Canal, 241
 - growth of western New York, 242
 - its public-school system, 305
- New York (city):
 - its first name New Amsterdam, 44
 - during the Revolution, 115, 119, 131, 132
 - Washington inaugurated in, 159
 - its population in 1800, 179; in 1860, 300
 - desires the trade of the West, 241
 - becomes the national metropolis, 242
 - Crystal Palace Exposition held in, 287
- Niagara, Fort, 110, 111
- Niagara Falls, 201
- Nolan, Philip, 252
- Non-Intercourse Act, 196, 197
- North, Lord, 147
- North, the:
 - how the balance between North and South was preserved, 224, 225
 - controls both houses of Congress, 314
 - on the side of the Union, 323
 - its strength, 325
- North Carolina:
 - first colony on coast of, 21
 - settlement of, 69, 70
 - government in, 70, 73
 - religion in, 71
 - becomes a royal province, 73
 - Scotch-Irish in, 88
 - during the Revolution, 146
 - ratifies the Constitution, 156
 - gives Tennessee to the United States, 173
 - secedes from the Union, 323
- North Castle, 132
- North Dakota:
 - carved out of the Louisiana Purchase, 189

North Dakota—Continued:

- beginnings of, 380, 381
- admitted as a State, 382
- wheat-growing in, 383
- Northern Pacific Railroad, 381-384
- Northwest, the New, 380-384
- Northwest Territory:
 - taken possession of by George Rogers Clark, 142
 - a cement to hold the Union together, 154
 - government of (Ordinance of 1787), 174
 - division of, 176, 206, 208
- Nova Scotia, 99, 110
- Nullification, 166, 203, 232-235, 289

O

- Ogden (Utah), 377
- Oglethorpe, James, 89, 90
- Ohio:
 - carved out of the Northwest Territory, 154
 - early history of, 174-176
 - demand the open navigation of the Mississippi, 188
 - becomes a State, 206
 - life in the early days, 211
 - the mother of Presidents, 212
 - its rapid growth, 248
- Ohio River, discovery of, 96
- Ohio valley, 101, 105, 112, 169, 188
- Oklahoma (ok-lā-hō'mā):
 - carved out of the Louisiana Purchase (in part), 189
 - becomes a Territory, 385
 - its rapid growth, 385
 - admitted to the Union, 385
- Oklahoma City, 385
- "Old Hickory," 236
- Omaha (ō'mā-hā), 377
- Omnibus Bill, 282-284
- Ordinance of 1787, 174
- Oregon:
 - claimed by England and the United States, 254, 255
 - early settlement of, 255
 - becomes a State, 273
 - a free State, 314
- Oregon, the, 400
- Oregon trail, 271
- Orient, 1, 2, 4
- Oriskany (ō-ris'kā-ni), 137
- Orleans, Territory of, 215
- Osawatimie (Kansas), 290
- Oswego, 137, 164, 178
- Otis, James, 115

P

- Pacific Ocean, 10, 11
- Paine, Thomas, 129
- Pakenham, Sir Edward, 203
- Palos (pā-lōs'), 5
- Panama Canal, 404-406
- Panic of 1837, 237; of 1873, 370
- Pardon and amnesty, 365
- Parker, Alton B., 406
- Parliament, 115, 116, 119
- Parties, political:
 - beginnings of, 162
 - Constitutional Union party, 296
 - Democratic party, 163, 186, 296
 - Free-Soil party, 276
 - Greenback party, 371

Parties, political—*Continued*:
 Know-Nothing party, 292
 National Republican party, 235
 Native American party, 292
 People's party, 397
 Prohibition party, 372
 Republican party, 291, 296
 Social Democratic party, 406
 Whig party, 250
 Patents, 302, 303
 Patroons, 42
 Peary, Robert E., 408
 Pemaquid (pem'a-kwid), 98
 Peninsular Campaign, 339-342
 Penn, William, 63-67
 Pennsylvania:
 granted to William Penn, 64
 settlement of, 65-67
 slavery in, 82
 population in 1700, 82
 religion in, 85
 government in, 85
 Germans in, 87
 Scotch-Irish in, 88
 during the Revolution, 116, 125, 134-136
 settlement of western Pennsylvania, 173
 builds Pennsylvania Canal, 242
 public-school system, 305
 during the Civil War, 349, 350, 356
 People's party, 397
 Pepperell, William, 100
 Pequot War, 56
 Perry, Oliver Hazard, 200, 201
 Perryville (Kentucky), battle, 338
 Personal Liberty Laws, 289
 Petersburg, siege and battle, 355, 356
 Philadelphia:
 founding of, 66
 its rapid growth, 67
 during the Revolution, 119, 122, 125, 134
 Constitutional Convention meets in, 155
 its rank in 1800, 179
 establishes a route to the West, 242
 its rank in 1860, 300
 Centennial Exposition held in, 370
 Philippi, battle, 327
 Philippine Islands, 11, 399, 402
 Phipps, William, 99
 Pickett, General, 350
 Pierce, Franklin, 287
 Pierre (South Dakota), 381
 Pike, Zebulon, 190
 Pike's Peak, 190, 378
 Pilgrims, 46-49
 Pinckney, Charles, 165
 Pinkney, William, 197
 Pirates, 72, 191
 Pitcairn, Major, 124, 126
 Pitt, William, 111
 Pittsburgh, 111, 173, 243
 Pizarro (pi-zä'rō), Francis, 12
 Plates, the leaden, 102
 Plows, 179, 298, 411
 Plymouth (town), 49
 Plymouth colony, 47-49, 60, 79
 Pocahontas, 33, 34
 Poe, Edgar Allan, 308, 310
 Pole, North, discovery of, 408
 Political parties, *see* Parties, political
 Polk, James K.:
 elected President, 254
 sketch of life, 255
 claims the Oregon country, 254-256

Polk, James K.—*Continued*:
 brings about the conquest of California, 256-259
 Polygamy, 380
 Ponce de Leon (pōn'thā dā lā-ōn'), 12
 Pontiac's Conspiracy, 113
 "Poor Richard's Almanack," 108
 Pope, General, 337, 342
 Popular sovereignty, 288, 295
 Population:
 center of, 301
 in cities, 179, 301, 418
 of the colonies, 82, 89
 of the United States:
 in 1790, 178
 in 1800, 179
 in 1820, 219
 in 1840, 248
 in 1860, 410
 in 1880, 410
 in 1900, 410
 in 1908, 410
 Port Hudson, 338, 351
 Portland (Oregon), 273, 381, 404
 Porto Rico, 401, 402
 Port Republic (Virginia), 91
 Port Royal (Nova Scotia), 99
 Portsmouth (Ohio), 175
 Portsmouth (Rhode Island), 60
 Portugal, 4, 15
 Post-office, 182, 415
 Powhatan, 33
 Prairie du Chien, 248
 Preëemption Law, 262
 Presbyterians, 85
 Prescott, William, 126
 President, the office of, 156, 159
 Presidential electors, 159
 Presidential succession, 390
 Presidents of the United States, *see* names of Presidents. For table with dates of terms *see* Appendix (p. li).
 Princeton (New Jersey), battle, 133
 Printing-press, 312
 Progress, table of, 410
 Prohibition party, 372
 Protection to American industries, 205, 228
 Providence, 59
 Public lands, 154, 206, 262, 306, 375
 Public schools, 304-307
 Pueblo (pweb'lō) (Colorado), 190, 378
 Puget Sound, 381
 Pullman strike, 395
 Puritans, 50-52, 85
 Put-in-Bay, 200
 Putnam, Israel, 127, 131

Q

Quakers, 63, 71, 82, 85
 Quebec, 94, 95, 112, 127
 Queen Anne's War, 99

R

Railroads:
 beginnings of, 243
 increase in mileage, 300, 410, 415
 transcontinental, 376, 381, 384
 Baltimore and Ohio, 244
 Union Pacific, 376-380

Railroads—*Continued*:

- Northern Pacific, 381-384
- Atchison, Topeka and Santa Fé, 384-386
- Texas and Pacific, 385
- electricity used on, 416
- Raleigh (rá'li), Sir Walter, 21
- Randolph, Edmund, 160
- Rate Law of 1906, 406
- "Raven," the, 310
- Reapers, 298, 411
- Reconstruction, the work of, 364-367
- Red Wing (Minnesota), 267
- Referendum, 386
- Religion:
 - religious freedom in Maryland, 36
 - religious freedom sought by Pilgrims, 47; and by the Puritans, 51
 - separation of church and state, 59
 - in the colonies in 1700, 84, 85
 - the religious services of the Jesuits, 94, 95, 269
- Removal:
 - of the Indians, 247
 - of the troops from the South, 372
- Representation:
 - and taxation, 116
 - offered to the colonies by England, 138
 - under the Articles of Confederation, 152
 - under the Constitution, 156
 - of free and slave States, 224, 225
 - of the North and of the South in 1860, 314
 - according to the Fourteenth Amendment, 366
- Republican party, 291, 296
- Republican party (National), 235
- Resaca (rá-sá'ká), battle, 354
- Reservations for Indians, 382
- Revere, Paul, 123
- Revolution, War of the:
 - causes of, 114-120, 129
 - "opening gun" of, 115
 - England's action toward, 119
 - close of, 147
 - summary of battles of, 149
- Rhode Island:
 - founding of, 58-60
 - allowed to govern itself, 79
 - its population in 1700, 82
 - religion in, 85
 - during the Revolution, 116
 - did not frame a new constitution, 150
 - ratifies the Constitution of the United States, 156
 - opposed to the War of 1812, 198
 - Dorr's Rebellion, 251
 - enacts Personal Liberty Laws, 289
- Rice, 72
- Richmond (Indiana), 239
- Richmond (Virginia), 327, 333, 340, 341, 356
- Rivers of North America, 24
- Road, National, 207, 239
- Roads, 24, 182, 207, 239, 240
- Roanoke Island, 21
- Rochester, 242
- "Rock of Chickamauga," 353
- Rolfe, John, 34
- Roosevelt, Theodore, 401, 402, 403-407
- Rosecrans, General, 338, 351
- "Rough Riders," 401
- Rumsey, James, 207
- Rural Free Delivery, 415

S

- Sacramento, 377
- Sacs (sâks) and Foxes, 264, 265
- St. Augustine, 17, 23
- St. Clair, General Arthur, 175
- St. John, John P., 390
- St. Joseph (Missouri), 248
- St. Lawrence River, 17, 94
- St. Leger, General, 137
- St. Louis (sânt lô'is):
 - the commercial center of the Mississippi valley, 219
 - its rank in 1860, 300
 - the Louisiana Purchase Exposition held in, 404
- St. Mary's (Maryland), 35
- St. Paul, 266, 267
- St. Pierre (san pyâr') (island), 113
- Salem (Massachusetts), 49
- Salem (Oregon), 273
- Salt Lake City, 274
- Sampson, Admiral William, 400, 401
- San Antonio (sân ân-tô'ni-ô) (Texas), 385
- San Diego (sân dê-â'gô), 269
- San Francisco, 269, 272, 407
- San Jacinto (sân ja-sin'tô) (Texas), 253
- San José (sân hô-sâ'), 269
- San Juan (sân hô-ân') Hill, battle, 400
- San Luis Rey (sân lô-ês' rā') (California), 269
- San Salvador, 5
- Santa Barbara (California), 269
- Santa Fé (sân'tā fā'), 259, 384
- Santa Fé Trail, 271
- Santiago (sân-tē-â'gô), battle, 400
- Saratoga, battle, 137
- Sault Ste. Marie (sô sânt mǎ'ri) Canal, 267
- Savannah, 89, 90, 143, 178, 355
- Schenectady, 40, 98
- Schley, Admiral, 401
- Schools, public, 304-307
- Schuyler, General, 136
- Scotch-Irish, 88, 91, 173
- Scott, Winfield, 201, 257-259, 287, 321
- "Sea of darkness," 3
- Seattle, 381, 383, 384
- Secession:
 - the first, 317
 - Davis gives reasons for, 318
 - Lincoln denies the right of, 320
 - the second, 323
 - conditions upon which seceded States were readmitted, 366, 367
- Sedition Law, 166
- Seminole, 222
- Semmes, Raphael, 346
- Servants, indented, 82
- Sevier (se-vēr'), John, 172
- Seward, William H., 321, 363
- Sewing-machines, 184, 302
- Seymour, Horatio, 369
- Shawneetown (Illinois), 210
- Shays's Rebellion, 153
- Shenandoah valley, 90-93, 341, 356
- Sheridan, Philip, 356, 357, 368
- Sherman, Roger, 155
- Sherman, General W. T.:
 - at Chattanooga and Missionary Ridge, 353
 - agrees with Grant on a final plan of campaign, 354
 - his march upon Atlanta, 354
 - from Atlanta to the Sea, 355

Sherman, General W. T.—Continued:

- his march northward, 355
- receives the surrender of Johnston, 357
- Sherman Silver Purchase Act, 392, 393
- Shiloh Church, battle, 336
- Shreveport (Louisiana), 248

Silver:

- the free coining of silver discontinued, 393
- the free-silver campaign, 397
- the production of silver in the United States, 412

Simms, William Gilmore, 300

Sioux (sō) Indians, 267, 382

Sixth Massachusetts Regiment, 326

Slavery:

- beginnings of, in Virginia, 35
 - in the colonies, 72, 82
 - prohibited by the Ordinance of 1783, 174, 209, 210
 - influence of cotton-gin on, 180
 - in Indiana and Illinois, 208-210
 - in Missouri, 219
 - in the United States in 1820, 223
 - how the balance between slave states and free states was preserved, 224, 225
 - strengthened by the admission of Texas and Florida, 254
 - number of slaves and slaveholders, 277
 - price of slaves, 278
 - how slaves were treated, 279, 280
 - the abolition movement, 280
 - fugitive-slave laws, 281
 - the "underground railroad," 281
 - the Compromise of 1850, 283
 - the Fugitive-Slave Law of 1850, 284
 - the Kansas-Nebraska Bill, 287-289
 - the struggle in Kansas over slavery, 289-290
 - the rise of the Republican party, 291
 - the Dred Scott decision, 292
 - the Lincoln-Douglas debates, 293
 - John Brown's Raid, 295
 - the presidential election of 1860, 296
 - the question divides the Union, 314-317
 - attempts to settle the question by the Crittenden Compromise, 317
 - established in the Confederate States, 318
 - Emancipation Proclamation, 342
 - abolished by the Thirteenth Amendment, 365
 - Fourteenth Amendment, 366
 - Fifteenth Amendment, 366
- Slidell, John, 330
- Smith, Green Clay, 372
- Smith, John, 32, 33, 48
- Smith, Joseph, 274
- Smuggling, 115
- Social Democratic party, 406
- Society of Jesus, 95, 269
- South:**
- how the balance between the North and the South was preserved, 224
 - the strength of, 325
 - united with the North, 375
 - progress in, since the war, 416, 417
- South Bend (Ohio), 175
- South Carolina:**
- settlement of, 70-72
 - government of, 73
 - during the Revolution, 116, 143
 - opposes Tariff of Abominations, 229

South Carolina—Continued:

- nullification movement in, 232-235
- secedes from the Union, 317
- takes possession of the forts in Charleston harbor, 319
- carpet-bag rule in, 370

South Dakota:

- carved out of the Louisiana Purchase, 189
- beginnings of, 380, 381
- admitted into the Union, 382
- wheat-growing in, 383

Southwest, the New, 384-386

Spain:

- gives assistance to Columbus, 5
- New World claimed by, 15
- destroys French settlements, 17
- secures possession of Florida, 13, 30
- loses her Invincible Armada, 20
- receives Louisiana from France, 113
- cedes Louisiana back to France, 187
- sells Florida to the United States, 223
- at war with the United States, 398-402

Spoils system, 231, 389

Spokane (spō-kan') (Washington), 383

Spotswood, Governor of Virginia, 91

Spottsylvania, battle, 355

Springfield (Massachusetts), 77

"Spy," the, 310

"Squatter sovereignty," 288

Stamford (Connecticut), 58

Stamp Act, 115, 116

Stamp Act Congress, 116

Standish, Miles, 48, 52

Stark, John, 127, 136

Star of the West, the, 319

"Star-Spangled Banner," 202

States:

- constitutions and government of, 151, 152
- history of, *see* under the names of the several States

Steam, 184, 310

Steamboats, 207, 208, 310, 381

Steuben (stū'ben), Baron, 140

Stockton, Commodore, 259

Stoves, 184, 312

Stowe, Harriet Beecher, 308

Strikes, 395, 403

Stuyvesant, Peter, 43, 63

Suffrage, the right of, 86, 183, 231, 366, 383

Sullivan, General, 142

Sumner, Charles, 290

Sumter, Fort, 319, 321, 322

Sumter, Thomas, 143

Supreme Court, 160, 234, 292, 394

Swedes, 62, 63

Syracuse, 242

T

Tacoma (Washington), 381, 383

Taft, William H., 407

Tariff:

- the first (1798), 161
- of 1816, 204
- of Abominations, 228
- of 1832, 234
- the Morrill, 359
- Walker, 359
- McKinley, 391
- Wilson, 394

Tariff—Continued:

Dingley, 398
Payne, 407

Taxation:

of the colonies by England, 114
resistance to, 115, 119
no taxation without representation, 116
under the Articles of Confederation, 152
under the Constitution, 157
on imports, 161
during the Civil War, 359
Income Tax, 394
see also under Tariff

Taylor, Zachary, 257, 258, 276-278

Tea, tax on, 117-119

Teach, Edward, 73

Tecumseh (te-kum'se), 209, 216

Telegraph, 301, 312, 413

Telephone, 413, 415

Tennessee:

during the Revolution, 146
early history of, 171-173
becomes a State, 173
demands the open navigation of the Mississippi, 188
in the War of 1812, 203
sends soldiers against the Indians, 218
its rapid growth, 248
secedes from the Union, 323
in the Civil War, 351-354

Tenure of Office Act, 367

Terre Haute (ter'e hôt') (Indiana), 239

Territories, history of, *see* under the names of the several Territories

Territory, the government of a, 174

Texas:

early history of, 252-254
annexation of, 254
secedes from the Union, 317
development of western Texas, 384, 385

Texas and Pacific Railroad, 385

"Thanatopsis" (than-a-top'sis), 308

Thirteenth Amendment, 365

Thomas, General, 353, 354

Threshing-machines, 298, 411

Ticonderoga, 125, 131, 136

Tilden, Samuel J., 371

Tippecanoe, 209

"Tippecanoe and Tyler too," 251

Tobacco, 34, 179, 298, 411

Tookabatchee, 216

Toombs, Robert, 321

Topeka, 290

Tories, 132, 142

Tory Rangers, 142

Town-meeting, 49

Townshend Acts, 116

Trade, *see* Commerce

Trails, 24

Transportation, *see* under Canals, Steam-boats, Railroads, Roads

Treason, of Arnold, 145; of Burr, 194

Treasury, Independent, 237

Treasury notes, 393

Treaties:

Aix-la-Chapelle, 101
alliance with France, 139
Clayton-Bulwer, 404
Ghent, 204
Guadalupe Hidalgo, 259
Hay-Pauncefote, 405
Jay's, 164
Oregon, 256
Paris (1763), 112

Treaties—Continued:

Paris (1783), 147

Ryswick, 99

Utrecht, 99

Webster-Ashburton, 252

with Spain, 401

with Tripoli, 191

Trent, the, 330

Trent, William, 106

Trenton, battle, 133

Tripoli (trip'ô-li), war with, 191

Troy (New York), 38

Trusts, 392

Tyler, John, 251-254

U

"Uncle Tom's Cabin," 310

Underground railroad, 281

Union:

first step in formation of, 60
second step in formation of, 108
third step in formation of, 116
First Continental Congress (fourth step), 122
Second Continental Congress (fifth step), 125
Declaration of Independence (sixth step), 129
Articles of Confederation (seventh step), 151-154
the Constitution (eighth step), 155-157
Webster's defense of, 232-234, 284
saved by the Civil War, 358
an indestructible Union of indestructible States, 367
strengthened by removal of troops from South, 373
a united people, 388

Union Pacific Railroad, 376-380

United States:

independence of, declared, 129
recognized by France, 139
independence secured, 147
new government organized, 160
territorial growth of, 260
a leader among nations, 418

United States notes, 359

Universities and colleges, 84, 183, 306, 416

Utah (û'tä):

early history of, 274
as affected by Compromise of 1850, 283
becomes a State, 380

Utica, 242

Utrecht, treaty of, 99

V

Valley Forge, 136, 140

Van Buren, Martin, 237, 238, 276

Vandalia (Illinois), 239

Venango (Pennsylvania), 102

Venezuela (ven-e-zwē'lä) boundary dispute, 395

Vera Cruz (ve'rä kröz'), battle, 258

Vermont:

part of a proprietary grant, 54
Green Mountain Boys of, 125
during the Revolution, 136
admitted to the Union, 171
enacts Personal Liberty Laws, 289

Vespucius, Americus, 9

Vicksburg, siege and battle, 337, 350

Vincennes, 142, 208

Vinland, 16

Virginia:

- origin of the name, 21
- founding of the colony, 31-35
- quarrels with Maryland, 36
- rule of Berkeley in, 76
- Bacon's Rebellion, 76
- population of, in 1700, 82
- religion in, 84
- settles the Shenandoah valley, 91-93
- defends her claim to the Ohio valley, 105
- sends troops against Fort Duquesne, 109, 111
- during the Revolution, 116, 120, 146
- sends Clark to the Northwest Territory, 142
- the Virginia Resolutions, 166
- permits Kentucky to separate, 170
- the "Mother of Presidents," 212
- its public-school system, 305
- secedes from the Union, 323
- loses West Virginia, 327
- during the Civil War, 327, 338-345, 355-358

Virginia City (Montana), 381

Voting, right of, 86, 183, 231, 366, 383

W

Walker Tariff, 359

Walk-in-the-Water, 245

Walla Walla (Washington), 255

Waltham (Massachusetts), 204

War of 1812:

- causes of, 197
- battles of, 198-203
- results of, 204

Warren, General, 126

Wars, *see* heading *Wars* in the Review of Great Subjects

Warwick (Rhode Island), 60

Washington, George:

- his life up to the year 1753, 105-106
- sent to the forts on the Ohio, 106
- joins the army of Braddock, 109
- marches against Fort Duquesne, 111
- offers to help Massachusetts, 120
- a member of the Second Continental Congress, 125
- placed in command of the American army, 125
- takes charge of the army around Boston, 126
- fortifies Dorchester Heights, 127
- drives the British out of Boston, 128
- at first opposed to separation from England, 128
- "the sword of the Revolution," 129
- foils the British at New York, 131
- at Harlem Heights and White Plains, 132
- annoyed by the Tories, 133
- loses two forts through the blunders of others, 133
- at Trenton and Princeton, 134
- in winter quarters at Morristown, 134
- at Brandywine and Germantown, 135
- in winter quarters at Valley Forge, 136
- sends Arnold and Morgan against Burgoyne, 137
- his trials at Valley Forge, 140
- attacks Clinton at Monmouth, 141
- encamps at White Plains, 141
- reprimands and forgives Arnold, 145

Washington, George—*Continued*:

- hurries to Yorktown, where he defeats Cornwallis, 146
- chairman of the Constitutional Convention, 155
- elected as the first President, 159
- his inauguration, 160
- his cabinet, 160
- puts down the Whisky Insurrection, 162
- neutral as between France and England, 163
- approves of Jay's treaty, 164
- retires to private life, 164
- revisits Pittsburgh, 173
- desires free intercourse between East and West, 239
- opposed to slavery, 280
- Washington (city):
 - how the capital came to be located on the Potomac, 162
 - the city in 1800, 186
 - during the War of 1812, 201
 - during the Civil War, 326, 328, 341, 356
- Washington (State):
 - a part of the Oregon country, 256
 - its early history, 382
 - admitted as a State, 382
 - its growth and resources, 383, 384
- Watauga (wā-tā'gā) (Tennessee), 172
- Wayne, Mad Anthony, 141, 173, 176
- Wealth of the United States, 410, 418
- Weaver, James B., 371, 388
- Webster, Daniel:
 - what he said about Hamilton, 161
 - his reply to Hayne, 233
 - settles boundary between Maine and Canada, 252
 - supports the Compromise of 1850, 284
 - his death, 284
- Webster, Noah, 310, 312
- Webster-Ashburton treaty, 252
- West Indies, trade with, 67, 192
- West Point, 145
- West Virginia:
 - separates from Virginia, 327
 - admitted to the Union, 327
 - not affected by the Emancipation Proclamation, 343
- Westward Movement:
 - first step, 56
 - in the Shenandoah valley, 91-93
 - in colonial times, 168
 - into Kentucky, Tennessee, and the Northwest Territory, 169-176
 - between 1800 and 1820, 206-219
 - Michigan and Arkansas, 244-246
 - along the Upper Mississippi and the Upper Great Lakes, 263-269
 - along the Pacific coast, 269-273
 - the settlement of Utah, 274
 - the New West, 375-386
 - (for further analysis *see* Review of Great Subjects)
- Wethersfield (Connecticut), 55, 57
- Wheat, 179, 211, 298, 411
- Wheeling, 207, 239, 244, 327
- Whig party, 250
- Whisky Insurrection, 162
- White, John, 21
- White Plains, 141
- Whitman, Marcus, 255
- Whitney's cotton-gin, 180
- Whittier, John Greenleaf, 308, 310
- Wilderness, the, battle, 355
- Willamette (wil-ä'met) valley, 255

